

THE SCHOOL REVIEW

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EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT



UNFINISHED BUSINESS

REGARDLESS of the fate of federal aid to education in the Congress, the real issues involved are likely to remain issues for years to come. The recent controversies in and out of the Congress as reported in the press were centered about proposed *means* to certain ends; the ultimate objectives were seldom questioned. Even opposition to federal aid on political and economic grounds became a minor issue in a heated debate growing out of religious differences.

The immediate issue was summarized as follows in the *NEA Journal* for October, 1949:

The basic difference between the Barden bill and the Senate-passed measure is in the use of federal funds. The Barden bill—HR4643—explicitly prohibits the use of such funds for transportation services to both public and nonpublic-school children. The Senate bill—S246—permits federal funds to be used in accordance with state laws which govern expenditures of state and local school-tax dollars. S246 thus conforms

strictly to the principle of state-local control of school policy.

Neither S246 nor HR4643 suits those who want to use federal funds for educational services to parochial-school children. S246 is thus unsatisfactory to the National Catholic Welfare Conference, because in relatively few states do state laws permit the use of public funds to provide transportation and nonreligious textbooks for parochial-school children. HR4643 is still more unsatisfactory to the National Catholic Welfare Conference because it specifically denies federal funds for such purposes in every state, state laws to the contrary notwithstanding.¹

The real issues are, of course, much more fundamental. Although every-

¹ An issue of *Edpress News Letter* received at press time quoted the following statement by Father William E. McManus, which originally appeared in the October 29th issue of the magazine *America*:

"The National Catholic Welfare Conference is ready right now to indorse a bill which would earmark 98 per cent of the federal appropriation for public schools exclusively, leaving 2 per cent available to furnish essential welfare services for the approximately three million nonpublic-school pupils in the United States."

one will readily agree that children should acquire spiritual values and should learn and practice the principles of morality, there is disagreement as to the proper means of helping them to achieve this goal. These differences are not between Catholics and non-Catholics alone, but during the recent controversy Catholics have taken prominent roles. Educators of all faiths may, therefore, find it helpful to examine the recent report *Catholic Secondary Education: A National Survey*, written by Sister Mary Janet, S.C., a member of the staff of the Commission on American Citizenship of the Catholic University of America, and published by the National Catholic Welfare Conference. In a discussion of the need for the Catholic system of schools, the report says:

There is a very simple and logical direction to the thinking of the Catholic educator. He reasons that since man is dependent on God for his existence and all his possessions, whether material, spiritual, or supernatural, it is clear that God must enter into every phase of his life activities. The dignity of the individual, so carefully guarded in the modern school, arises from his creation in God's image and his redemption by Jesus Christ. All the rights and duties of human beings, both as individuals and as members of the state, depend on this divine source. Because man has a spiritual and immortal soul and a free will, he looks forward, after a life that accords with God's designs, to an eternal life in heaven with his Creator.

¶ If the process of education, then, is to fulfil its function of developing the whole person, a principle which has universal approval, the Catholic educator considers the task incompletely performed unless knowledge of God and our duties to Him are included in the educational program. Schools

consider it their duty to aid parents in every other phase of the development of children—in matters of health, of home life, of leisure pursuits, as well as in intellectual skills and habits; the duty of the school also includes, therefore, the development of the spiritual life, which cannot be accomplished without religion, which is its source.

It can never be forgotten that this logic is not merely Catholic; it is Christian, and was the philosophy of the founders of this Christian nation.

The opposing point of view denies the assumption that religious instruction must be included in the educational program of schools. The NEA Legislative Commission, in the article referred to above, summarizes as follows the position of public school people:

The National Education Association through nearly a century has supported the expenditure of public money for public schools only. This is in keeping with the principle of separation of church and state plainly set forth in the Constitution of the United States. The principle is deeply rooted in the American tradition. It has recently been confirmed in two decisions (Everson case and McCollum case) of the United States Supreme Court as follows:

"No tax in any amount, large or small, can be levied to support any religious activities or institutions whatever they may be called, or whatever form they may adopt to teach or practice religion."

In a discussion of the contribution of John Dewey to the clarification of the differences between the scientific method and appeal to some form of authority, Boyd H. Bode wrote in the *New Republic* of October 17, 1949:

Another implication of Dewey's analysis is that scientific method and democracy

necessarily go hand in hand. Democracy is often identified with concern for the individual and the disposition to give him a fair chance. It means more than that. As a people we are committed to the principle of separation of church and state, a separation which rests on the assumption that morality can be separated from theological creed, that its final appeal is to "social" (as contrasted with "cosmic") sanction, that its basic concepts are working hypotheses and not immutable truths. There is no other way of replying effectively to the charge that our public schools can provide at best only an inferior "secular" morality, and perhaps not even that, since they do not supply a theological basis for moral beliefs.

The opposition to the current agitation for religious instruction in our system of public education is not based primarily on an awareness that divergent moral standards are in conflict, but rather on a deep-seated distrust of ecclesiastical domination. It is likewise the major reason for opposition to the expenditure of public money on parochial schools. This distrust has considerable historical justification, but it does not go to the root of the matter. Either democracy has morality of its own, or we must return to a type of educational control which we thought we had left behind.

The battle over the Barden bill was only a skirmish in a cold war of ideas. Many people believe that young people are failing to develop the spiritual values, the moral principles and stamina, necessary for successful living in a confused world. Religious education sponsored by churches has made great progress in the development of methods and materials, but it reaches only a fraction of our youth and for a short time only. The drop-out rate in the public schools during the high-school period is a source of concern to edu-

tors. In the Sunday schools it is much higher. In an article on "Student Hours in School vs. Out of School" in the *Harvard Educational Review* for Spring, 1948, Roben J. Maaske, president of the Eastern Oregon College of Education, states that "only 15.96 per cent of the waking time of the hypothetical high-school graduate, from birth to age eighteen, is spent under the direct influence of the school." The amount of time given to the development of moral and spiritual values in non-Catholic religious-education programs is unquestionably small in comparison.

It is natural for those concerned about these values to try to work out methods of co-operating with the public school organization in order to reach more children for a longer time. These efforts, which call for practical interpretations of the principle of separation of church and state, are again only aspects of the basic problem. The task we must face is the evolution of means by which all youths in the United States may be led, under guidance and within the framework of our democratic ideals, to think more deeply about spiritual and moral problems.

It will be a long time before this problem is solved to the satisfaction of the diverse groups within our country. The Catholics are not disposed to wait. The survey of *Catholic Secondary Education*, quoted above, reports that between 1920 and 1947 the number of Catholic high schools increased from 1,552 to 2,111, or 36 per cent. The number of pupils enrolled was 129,848

in 1920 and 467,039 in 1947, an increase of about 260 per cent. It is interesting to note that 8,328 non-Catholics are included in the 1947 figure. According to the report:

Religion is universally taught as a separate subject and required for four years but with varying degrees of emphasis, judging by the amount of time spent and the number of credits granted.

The survey gives a comprehensive picture of the Catholic high schools and should be examined by non-Catholic as well as Catholic educators. Copies may be obtained at \$1.50 each from the Department of Education, National Catholic Welfare Conference, Washington 5, D.C.

TEACHERS' PENSIONS

THE strikes of the steel workers and of the mine workers have been getting the headlines in the press for some time. For the sake of the country as a whole, it is to be hoped that they will have been settled and work resumed before these words appear in print. These strikes should remind us that there is one respect in which teachers have had an advantage over many industrial workers. Over the years great progress has been made by states and large school systems in establishing retirement and pension plans for teachers. In the course of the recent struggles to obtain higher salaries for teachers, little attention has been paid to the nature and the adequacy of these plans. In most cases the teachers themselves contribute a certain per cent of their salaries toward

the retirement fund, and retirement allowances are often keyed in some manner to the final salary. When this is the case, a higher salary usually means a higher pension. The issues centering on noncontributory pensions, which gave rise to the steel strike, have seldom been raised by school people.

The current widespread concern over adequate provision for old age may stimulate teachers to re-examine their own status. A pension plan which may have appeared to be adequate a few years ago looks much less satisfactory now. The anticipated pension would probably have to be multiplied by a number not far from 2 in order to be equivalent in purchasing power to the pension intended in most retirement plans.

Teachers' salaries, although higher than they were a few years ago, are still relatively low, and the pressure to raise them must be continued. One may ask what hope there is, then, for more adequate pension plans. The apparent answer may bring on a fit of mental depression, and perhaps we ought to change the subject. Yet is it clear that, as more industrial employees succeed in establishing some measure of security for their old age, the profession of teaching tends to sink relatively lower than before in its appeal to workers. It will become harder than ever to recruit the many thousands of new members who will be needed for the profession during the next decade. The argument that, although the salary of a teacher is not high,

there will be a pension on retirement, will be less effective when pensions are the rule, rather than the exception, in other fields.

The proposed pensions for industrial workers when increased by social-security allowances are supposed to amount to about \$100 a month. If teachers' pensions are made large enough in comparison, the anticipated pension can still be an inducement to enter, or to remain in, the profession. Teachers are not included under the social security legislation now in force. If, in order to provide for larger pensions, their contributions to pension funds are increased without a corresponding increase in salary, their take-home pay will be smaller. Now that the efforts to raise salaries seem to have subsided somewhat, teachers should consider the advantages and disadvantages of calling attention to their situation with respect to pensions. In spite of some cogent arguments against it, they might decide to try to take advantage of the present trend toward noncontributory pensions to improve their prospects when the day of retirement arrives.

ON COLLEGE-ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

WHAT fraction of the students in your high school are preparing to enter colleges or are in the "academic" curriculum? What fraction of last year's graduating class actually entered college? In any comprehensive survey of the program of a senior high school, it is important to know

the answers to questions like these. Very often the number of students who enter college is much smaller than the number who, theoretically at least, were prepared to do so.

It is well known that college-entrance requirements exert a retarding influence on the efforts of secondary schools to build a curriculum that meets the real needs of adolescents. Proposals for changes in the curriculum are met by the objection that both they and college preparation cannot be provided for at the same time. If it is pointed out that many of the students will not get to college and could be given a more functional curriculum, it is claimed that the parents would object because they want their sons and daughters prepared for college. How true is this?

Few schools have ever attempted to find out just what fraction of the parents want a college education for their children. Some indication of the results that might be expected is given in the Fortune Survey of "Higher Education" for September, 1949. People were asked: "If you had a boy graduating from high school, would you personally like to have him go on to college, or would you rather have him do something else?" Five out of every six persons said they would want a son (if they had one) to go on to college. Ninety-six per cent of the professional men and executives gave favorable replies, but even farmers and wage-earners were favorable in four cases out of five. The response to a similar question with respect to girls received

replies favorable to college entrance in seven out of ten cases. It is clear that a majority of the members of the sample population thought that attending college is a desirable experience for both girls and boys.

One of the most significant findings of the survey was that 56 per cent of the population are in favor of the proposal that the federal government provide money to send to college qualified high-school students who otherwise could not afford to go. Some readers may be surprised to learn that only 60 per cent of the people classified as "poor" think this is a good idea and that as many as 35 per cent of those considered "prosperous" were in favor of it. The values to the nation that should eventually follow such legislation need not be elaborated here. The arguments for it are obvious and are well known.

The Fortune Survey did not attempt to find out how many people would oppose changes in the high-school curriculum if they thought these changes would have an unfavorable effect on entrance and later success in college. However, teachers do have some basis for their fears on this score. There are always a few especially vocal and influential parents who make it clear that preparation for college ranks first in the list of things they expect the school to accomplish. The following quotation from an article by Roland C. Faunce, on "A Functional Program for Michigan Youth," in *Educational Leadership* for March, 1949,

describes the situation faced by curriculum workers:

These subject requirements [college-admission sequence requirements] had various effects upon efforts to improve the curriculum of the secondary school. In large high schools the college-bound students were conventionally herded into a sort of sub-school with a special curriculum beginning at Grade IX and a special diploma which provided the magic key to the college doors. In small schools the effort to provide for a very small number of college-bound students resulted in the entire curriculum being strait jacketed. Studies conducted even in recent years show that the majority of small high schools required all their graduates to satisfy college admission sequence requirements.

The effect of these requirements has been even more restrictive than can be explained by their actual limitations. There seems to be a psychological hazard stemming from the prestige of the colleges and universities which causes high-school faculties to reject the possibility of change. At numerous curriculum conferences held in recent years, fears have invariably been expressed that "the college will not let us make such changes." It should be added that many university and college staff members have not sought such influence and power but have, on the contrary, deplored the restrictive effect which sequence requirements for college admission obviously exert upon the secondary schools.

Most schools embarking on programs of curriculum revision which involve more than minor adjustments must either take steps to win the support of colleges, of teachers, and of parents, or be prepared for trouble.

One of the possible negative effects of weakening the economic bar to college entrance has seldom been men-

tioned. The opening of the doors of the colleges to students from homes of lower socioeconomic status may tend to increase the difficulty of modernizing the curriculum of the secondary schools. More students may legitimately be advised to take courses that are supposed to be college preparatory, and more parents may be disposed to insist that their children be prepared for college at the expense of learning experiences better suited to their needs.

When the possibility of entering college is remote, students are usually quite willing to be enrolled in courses that make no pretense of being college preparatory. Parents of children from lower-class homes are indifferent and pay little attention to the courses their children are taking. If more boys and girls can hope to enter college, even if their parents cannot afford to send them, the problem of guidance may become more, not less, difficult. This possibility, however, should not deter those who favor such legislation from seeking to get it enacted.

The assumption that preparation for college and a more functional curriculum in the high school are incompatible has been examined and found questionable, if not invalid. A steadily increasing body of research shows that modern objectives and methods in secondary-school courses produce learning products at least as good, and in some respects better, than those produced by the more traditional college-oriented type of work. Relatively few

teachers in high schools and colleges are familiar, except in a vague way, with these studies, and certainly very few parents have heard of them. The feeling of insecurity, shared by many in both of these groups whenever curriculum changes are undertaken, must be reduced.

There are several main lines of attack on this problem. One method is to bring about modifications in the requirements of the colleges. By a slow process resembling erosion, the requirement mountain of a few decades ago has been worn down appreciably. Recently the process has been accelerated by setting up special agreements between certain groups of schools and colleges. The Commission on the Relation of School and College of the Progressive Education Association had an agreement with almost all the college and universities, under which qualified graduates of the experimental schools were to be admitted without regard for prescribed entrance units or entrance examinations. More recently, as explained in the article by Faunce referred to above, the Michigan Secondary Curriculum Study had a similar arrangement with institutions in Michigan. In 1946 this agreement was extended and made permanent, and about a hundred high schools have been accepted and are operating under the new arrangement. The Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program, launched on September 1, 1947, is getting actively under way, and similar plans have been de-

veloped for that state. According to Professor C. W. Sanford, director of the Illinois Program, the Steering Committee has approved a report of the Committee on College Admissions and recommended it to the higher institutions in Illinois for their study and reactions.

The Committee recommends that the colleges adopt admission policies which do not specify the courses the students are to take in high school but specify the kinds of competence to be required of entering students. There has been extensive research on the kinds of competence which are good predictors of college success. The following five criteria can be used by a college or university to provide the best prediction of the probable success of the student in college work:

1. Score on a scholastic aptitude test, such as the American Council Psychological Examination.
2. Score on a test of critical reading, such as the Illinois High School Reading Test.
3. Score on a test of writing skill, such as the General Educational Development Test of Correctness and Effectiveness of Expression.
4. Score on a simple mathematical test, such as the Quantitative Section of the American Council on Education Psychological Examination.
5. Evidence that the student has an intellectual interest and some effective study habits, as shown by his having taken at least two years of work in one field in high school in which his grades were better than average.

It is recommended that the foregoing criteria be used for admission to general college work in place of any other set of entrance requirements.

The Committee also recommends that competencies for specialized cur-

riculums, such as engineering, "be determined on the basis of standardized tests rather on the basis of passing specified courses."

The modification of requirements by the colleges does not necessarily relieve the high-school teachers of their anxiety. Many of them need to be convinced that a more functional curriculum (properly worked out, of course), can arm the student with some of the facts, skills, attitudes, appreciations, and thinking abilities he will need in order to succeed in college. "Pep" talks and other forms of exhortation are not enough.

Part of the time used for in-service training projects might profitably be spent in reviewing several of the more carefully evaluated studies of the effects of new courses, objectives, materials, and methods. There is no reason to suppose pupils can learn problem-solving methods from teachers who cannot use the methods themselves. The teachers may practice the collection and evaluation of data by drawing upon some of these published studies.

Finally, the parents need to be considered. Many schools are now attempting to involve parents in curriculum and other school problems through community councils, P.T.A. groups, and similar organizations. The views of parents on what ought to be taught are worth knowing, but too often they are reactionary. Part of the effort to acquaint parents with the features of a new program might well be spent in explaining, informally of

course, the results of similar programs in other schools. In particular, they need to know that, when it comes to preparation for college, *what* a student studies is generally far less important than *how* he learns it.

The Fortune Survey asked a number of questions in addition to those commented upon above. Although it deals primarily with higher education, it should be of interest to those concerned with secondary education. The following sentence is from the Introduction: "One safe conclusion to be drawn from the Survey is that the country needs a lot of education about higher education." A motion to amend this by deleting the word "higher" is in order.

DRIVER EDUCATION

IT IS much easier to change the high-school curriculum by introducing new courses than it is to eliminate or basically to reorganize old ones. The latest example of this is the recent growth of driver-education courses. A news release from the National Education Association reporting on the First National Conference on High-School Driver Education held on October 2-5, 1949, includes the following information:

A total of 4,346 high schools in the United States offer courses in driver instruction including both classroom work and practice behind the wheel. An additional 3,000 or more high schools report they offer driver instruction consisting of classroom work only....

There are now more than 3,000 training cars in use by the nation's high schools. Most of these are loaned to the schools by

manufacturers, dealers, and motor clubs. The conference recommended that school systems offering driver-education courses should purchase one or more automobiles for road practice.

Above 400,000 students are now enrolled in driver-education and training courses of some type, the cost of which ranges from \$15 to \$27 per pupil.

The conference went on record against legislation requiring schools to provide driver education, recommended that money to support such courses should not be earmarked and should come from the same sources as the funds provided for support of the whole educational program.

Behind-the-wheel instruction was recommended as an essential of driver training, but representatives from several states reported successful programs with classroom instruction only. A place was demanded for driver education as a part of the curriculum with a minimum total time for a complete course in driver education of 45-60 hours.

The Association of Casualty and Surety Companies, announcing a new edition of *Man and the Motor Car*, a widely used textbook for high-school courses in driver education, states that last year alone they co-operated with the Center for Safety Education of New York University in 92 driver-education institutes which trained more than 2,300 teachers. The Traffic Engineering and Safety Department of the American Automobile Association found through a questionnaire returned by 358 instructors that they had received an average of 44 hours of special training in driver education but believed that 57.5 hours would be desirable. Teaching aids in a variety of forms are becoming increasingly available.

Students of the field of secondary education as a whole probably ought to evaluate the driver-training program in relation to curriculum theory in general. What are the reasons for the rapid growth of driver-education courses? How do they fit into the total program of a good modern secondary school?

Several of the reasons for this development can be identified immediately. In the first place, there has been increasing awareness of the importance of health and safety education. Thirty years ago *health* was listed as one of the objectives in *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*. As the schools have steadily sought to make their programs more functional, this objective, extended to include safety, has become a major focus of attention. Various organizations have collected and publicized statistics on accidental injuries and deaths, especially those involving automobiles, until every educated person has probably thought "something ought to be done about it." The desirability of reducing the accident toll is not a controversial question. Hence, the apparently obvious solution, namely, to introduce a course on driver education in the high schools, has met with little active opposition. It has received the support of benevolent pressure groups with money and of educational people with know-how. The recent National Conference on High-School Driver Education was sponsored by seven influential educational organizations. Six of these are affiliated with the Na-

tional Education Association, and the seventh was the National Council of Chief State School Officers.

In the second place, the specific objectives of safety education are relatively easy to formulate, to understand, and to communicate. They include useful information, skills, attitudes. Some of the other important objectives of education, such as those relating to citizenship and democracy are harder to state in operational terms at the secondary level. They seem to be less closely related to the immediate concerns of adolescents.

Third, most boys and girls do not need any artificial motivation for learning how to drive a car. The problem for parents is how to postpone as long as possible the inevitable day when permission to learn to drive must, in the interests of family harmony, be granted. One of the better arguments for learning to drive properly at school, instead of being taught by Dad or Mother, is that the instruction not only is more competent but also is more likely to remain on an impersonal basis. The adolescent will take criticism from a school teacher which he would resent from his "old man." The all-important development of proper attitudes in connection with driving can proceed more smoothly when they are not mixed with other attitudes and are not accompanied by emotional overtones, as is often the case in a family driving lesson.

Questions as to the integration of driver education into the total program of the secondary schools are

more difficult to answer. The school has many other tasks to accomplish, and their relative importance is not easy to determine. One of the chief bottlenecks in modernizing the curriculum is the bookkeeping scheme of the school—the semester, course, and credit structure. Consumer education is deemed good, so we must have a new course for that. Family-life education is important, so we must introduce a course. Driver education is desirable, so another course is placed in the program. A student is permitted to take a certain number of courses each semester, and satisfactory work leads to an entry in the credit column on the records. If as much effort could be put into getting a better system as is utilized for the development of driver-education courses, the whole field of secondary education could advance to a new front almost overnight.

One proposal is to replace the semestersystem with a "quarter" system. Courses formerly allotted two semesters would be reduced to two quarters, forcing the elimination of some of the less important work. Not counting the possibility of having a regular summer quarter, room would be provided in the program for many more quarter-length courses.

Once started on this path, the logical thing to do is to subdivide again to about a six-weeks period, to organize learning experiences into functional units, and to put the record-keeping on a learning-unit basis. Units on consumer education, driver education, and family-life education, along with

units in social studies, literature, mathematics, science, and so on, could then be so selected and arranged as to make a richer program than is now available to most students. The abandonment of the *course* concept and the tendency to think in terms of semesters and years of work would tend to facilitate the integration of the useful portions of traditional subject matter into the emerging experience units, "core" programs, and other new arrangements.

In the meantime, driver-education experts can perfect their materials and methods. An examination of some of them leaves one a little uncertain just where they are heading. Thus, a bulletin on driver education and training put out by the American Automobile Association contains an enticing suggestion on teaching technique.

One instructor has his students practice S turning in reverse gear. Gradual S's are started in the middle of the street, and these are made increasingly more sharp until the students are making sharp turns from curb to curb using the full travel of the steering gear. This maneuver is, of course, performed at very slow speed. He feels that the use of this technique prior to demonstrating parking is well worth the time spent for he has noted that his students experience very little difficulty in becoming adept at parallel parking.

Since in ordinary driving one rarely has occasion to make backward S turns from curb to curb, it would be enlightening to see the results of a controlled study comparing this method of learning to park with one which concentrates directly on the task it-

self. Similarly, a published "final examination" in the field of driver education contains some items which are of doubtful validity. One of the interesting examples is the following:

If someone shouts, "Signal where you're going, you bum," the driver probably learned to drive

- A) By a systematic step-by-step technique
- B) In a high-school driver-training class
- C) By "picking it up" himself
- D) With behind-the-wheel training

As in every field, both old and new, there is much to be learned about making the work more effective. The real test of this movement, however, will be the trend of motor-accident statistics in the years ahead. A proof of the proposition that driver-education courses reduce accidents will require sophisticated statistical methodology. In the meantime, the proposition is at least a promising hypothesis.

IN PAPER COVERS

TEACHERS of the social studies, if sufficiently courageous to permit discussion in their classes of controversial international problems, can easily collect plenty of opinions held by our citizens about the European nations. It is not so easy to find what the Europeans think of us. Hence, teachers may wish to refer their students to a book, *European Beliefs Regarding the United States*, recently published by the Common Council for American Unity (20 West Fortieth Street, New York 18, New York). It reports, by means of text and colorful charts, the

results of a questionnaire answered by 1,702 qualified observers of opinion in 26 European countries. The 45 questions deal with the Marshall plan, American national policy, American press, radio, and motion pictures, labor, foreign policy, the "East versus West" controversy, the United States government, and the individual American. The results are shown for each question separately and also by individual European nations. Numerous observers are quoted. The price is \$2.00, and the format and printing are unusually attractive.

The United States office of Education has released two circulars of interest to school administrators and others in secondary education. The first, entitled *How Large Are Our Public High Schools?* reports the results of a questionnaire on enrolment returned by virtually all high schools in the country. One set of tables of data is arranged to show the distribution of four-year public high schools and of junior-senior public high schools by size of enrolment and by states. Another set of tables shows the distributions by size of professional staff and by states. Other tables give the actual number of pupils in the schools by states and by size of enrolment. In each case there is a corresponding table in which the raw data have been converted to per cents. Also included are tables showing the actual number of professional staff members, and the average number of pupils per staff member. Summary tables for the United States, together with some ex-

planatory material and interpretative comment, give a comprehensive view of the size of the nation's schools. This circular (No. 304, in the series of "High School Size Studies") is for sale by the Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C., for \$0.25.

The second circular, on *Class Size: The Larger High School*, is the first of a projected series on class size in general. It reports the results of a questionnaire returned by 1,260 secondary schools with enrolments of 1,000 and more. The study is specially significant because it is based upon the distribution of individual class sizes, rather than average class size or the pupil-teacher ratio. Data are exhibited in both tabular and graphic forms. The discussion includes quotations from administrators giving reasons for the existence of some of the large

classes and their viewpoints on the problem, with particular attention to comments regarding ideal class size. This circular (No. 305) is also obtainable from the Government Printing Office. The price is \$0.20.

MAURICE L. HARTUNG

ANNOUNCEMENT OF PRICE
INCREASE

ALL our efforts to keep our budget on an even keel by making economies of one kind and another have been rendered futile by continued rises in costs. We are, therefore, forced to increase the price of the *School Review* to \$4.50, effective January 15, 1950. Subscriptions and renewals received before that date will be accepted at the present rate of \$4.00.

WHO'S WHO FOR DECEMBER

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by MAURICE L. HARTUNG, associate professor of the teaching of mathematics at the University of Chicago. FREDERICK S. BREED, associate professor emeritus of education of the University of Chicago, tells us some of the reasons why the "lecture-and-listen method in the colleges" and the "read-and-remember method of the lower schools" are not suitable instructional methods in a democracy, and he suggests that research on counseling throws light on ways of training the individual student for intellectual action and independence. DOROTHY MCCLURE, specialist for the social sciences and geography, Division of Secondary Education, Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, reports the results of a study on the frequency of mention and thoroughness of presentation of the topic of atomic energy in social-science textbooks. DOROTHY LEGGITT, head of the social-science department and guidance counselor in Wydown School, Clayton, Missouri, demonstrates a method of helping students predict their future vocational success in their chosen work through the use of a rat-

ing scale. STEPHEN ROMINE, director of the Bureau of High School Counseling and Accreditation, University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado, reports the results of a study of subject combinations and teaching loads in secondary schools in Colorado. LEO SHAPIRO, director of the Department of Education of the Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, discusses the value and use of intergroup materials in the teaching of English. A list of selected references on higher education is presented by NORMAN BURNS, associate professor of education at the University of Chicago, and MANNING M. PATTILLO, JR., assistant secretary of the Commission on Colleges and Universities of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, located at the University of Chicago.

Reviewers of books W. C. KVARACEUS, professor of education at Boston University. ISRAEL GOLDIAMOND, research assistant in the Department of Psychology at the University of Chicago. HARRY C. MUTH, principal of East Senior High School, Rockford, Illinois.

HOW MAKE TEACHING DEMOCRATIC?

FREDERICK S. BREED



EDUCATORS who take the student and his problems as their point of departure in teaching argue that their approach is more psychological, more scientific, and more democratic than the traditional approach. They begin with the needs of the learner though they respect the needs of society. They argue that this procedure is more psychological because it takes off from problematic situations in the experience of the student which lie at the very foundation of his thinking process; it is more scientific because it leads the student to search for facts upon which to base his conclusions; and it is more democratic because it permits the student to arrive at conclusions himself rather than to have them handed to him prefabricated by one who presumes to know.

THE TRADITIONAL PRACTICE

Now, in this argument there is nothing new to persons who have followed the literature on ways of teaching. But, until relatively recently, the defense of this more modern method has been largely theoretical, and the number of its followers limited. Converts are but slowly won in a profession that is notorious for its conservatism. It must not be assumed, how-

ever, that all the opponents of this teaching process are mossy and musty conservatives. One of my most esteemed colleagues, who is recognized for his liberalism in economics and politics, draws the line when it comes to the adoption of the problem approach as a general foundation for instruction. He seems to understand the theory back of the method but doubts its ability to deliver the coveted educational goods. The basis of his opposition is important, because it is reflected in the hesitancy of many others who feel more secure in the time-honored past. They stand aloof mainly because they believe the achievement of many important values, particularly items of knowledge and skill, cannot be safely intrusted to the liberal program. At bottom, they mistrust the psychological order of achievement, which is an order determined by a condition of the learner. They have much in common with those persons who hold out for a logically ordered approach, for a systematic organization of subject matter to be followed by the learner, as if education were an accumulation of knowledge.

Certainly, memorizing the content of a book or a course of lectures is not

education. Storing away the verbal captions of others in one-two-three order helps a student pass the type of examinations used as a measure of such achievement, but such examinations, even those that are standardized, have lost caste in education with the kind of achievement they were designed to measure.

It was said of John Dewey during his connection with the University of Chicago (the story may be apocryphal) that when he wanted to find out what was in an unfamiliar field, he offered a course in it. If true, then the writer seems once upon a time to have followed closely in the footsteps of this distinguished philosopher; for he undertook to give a course in a subject in which his ignorance and dubiety vastly surpassed his fund of knowledge. But the students were probably fortunate to have had a part in determining the boundaries of the subject and identifying the principal problems therein, while the instructor was lucky that the students knew still less about the subject than he did. Over a span of years, data on the problems were jointly gathered and interpreted, and eventually the results were prepared for a wider audience in book form, at which juncture the course was abandoned—abandoned as soon as a body of organized subject matter was ready for appropriation by the traditional method.

It is the belief of the writer that this book-in-the-making furnished a better pattern for instruction than the book in print. This is not to say that a text-

book can be of use to a traditionalist only. Nathaniel Cantor in a recent volume (2) has shown otherwise. However, the textbook, for example his own *Crime and Society* (1), became a challenge for thought, not a pattern for it. His students were expected to express their reactions to his ideas, not merely echo them. He had concluded that "the essential goal of the American college remains that of fact gathering" (2: 13) and departed from this tradition by making the classroom a clearing-house for the many-angled reactions of students to his treatise on criminology. The most significant aspect of his procedure, however, is found in his application of the principles of nondirective or client-centered counseling. Under these principles he refrained from telling a student what ideas to adopt, just as a mental hygienist employing the same principles refrains from telling a patient what attitudes to adopt. Cantor carried into the classroom at the University of Buffalo a method of instruction in which the teacher held up a mirror to the students' reactions, reflecting the students to themselves. He did not impart knowledge; he facilitated learning. The students did the rest; that is, in the course of discussion, they reached conclusions based on the facts before them. Said one student: ". . . the way in which we tried to answer the problems in criminology seems to be the way we have to try answering the problems we meet in our everyday living" (2: 258). Just so. Yet the average instructor does not

operate in this manner. He hands his conclusions to his students as if their minds were not to be trusted or were mere receptacles—even unto the voting age.

It is no longer necessary for a teacher to depend on theoretical considerations alone in making his choice of the methods under discussion. We now have data from elaborate and carefully conducted experiments that furnish objective evidence for a decision—studies like that of Mead and Orth (5) conducted in the elementary school of the University of California, and the study made in thirty secondary schools by the evaluation staff of the Eight-Year Study under the sponsorship of the Progressive Education Association (3). To the writer, the most impressive outcome of these and other similar experiments is the finding that pupils who were taught in schools in which much of the work was organized on the problem basis made normal, or better than normal, achievement in conventional knowledge and skill requirements and, in addition, profited from special guidance in fundamental aspects of the thinking process, in important phases of personal adjustment, and in other directions featured alone in the experimental schools using the problem approach.

LIGHT FROM RESEARCH ON COUNSELING

For those persons who define teaching as the guidance of learning, new light is filtering in from research on

counseling. Let us differentiate two areas for guidance which, for convenience, may be classified under the headings (1) inner adjustment and (2) outer adjustment. Mental hygienists are primarily engaged with the first. They deal with the problems of ambivalence, of emotional conflict, of personal tension. The region of concern is principally emotional. The educator, on the other hand, is more actively engaged with intellectual contradictions and conflicts, with problems of understanding: What to think, what to conclude about the things around one, about the objects and events that constitute one's environment. The first of these problems concerns the organization of the self or personality; the second, the organization of the world in which we live. In the terminology of education, these problems are often referred to as inner and outer integration, respectively. A teacher should be sensitive to both types of problems and understand his function in relation thereto.

Education is now in a position to unify its thinking on the two types of problems just mentioned. In each case an individual, whether he is being taught or treated, is involved in a problematic situation. In each instance the objective is an adjustment to the situation. Learning or relearning or both are required. In the case of the maladjusted individual, as Franklin Shaw remarks, "Any learning theory should suggest to us that relearning or reorientation is an essential part of therapy" (13: 178).

To what extent, one may ask, is the method of guidance identical in the two cases? The scientific procedure in both fields is presumed to be diagnosis followed by a remedial or corrective prescription. Traditionally, facts are gathered more or less thoroughly about a case as a basis for directives that issue from authority. Doubts about this formula concern the dependability of the diagnosis, the wisdom of the directive, and the democracy of the overlordship of teacher or counselor.

For many years good teachers have allowed their pupils to tussle with facts relating to problems and have stimulated them to attempt interpretations. Such teachers will find reassurance in the discoveries of Carl Rogers, psychologist at the University of Chicago, who has been experimenting for many years with nondirective or client-centered counseling. He and his school have departed from the authoritative or directive type of counseling in general use. They show an unusual indifference to diagnosis and a healthy skepticism about the validity of therapeutic directives. On the other hand, they show an unusual reliance on the client's ability to resolve his own conflicts, once he clearly grasps the situation.

The more recent type of counselor declines to make up the client's mind for him. He simply acts so as to mirror the facts in the case, as previously intimated, and leaves the decision to the client. In other words, in classroom and clinic, according to this theory,

the problem of guidance consists in helping the subject to confront the facts, the factors in the situation, and draw the conclusion himself. Thus, as the terminology seems to imply, there is much in common between client-centered counseling and student-centered teaching. Both are learner-centered. Neither is learner-circumscribed.

The "child-centered school," as originally understood, is not, however, on its way back. It is on its way out. It operated as if individual value, apart from social value, were enough by which to live and learn. It was too indifferent to the vital common interests of the community. It was clearly aware of the value of intelligence but only dimly aware of the values of truth and morality that had accrued from intelligence. Like the generation of which it was a part, the supporters of this doctrine made the terrible error of neglecting these values, as if all were lost when absolutes are lost. It was the error of the chronic skeptic, who makes an impractical fetish of the quest for certainty, distorts the virtue of open-mindedness into a vicious caricature, and sneers at the best authenticated beliefs, at the foundation of the faith with which we face the future in every waking hour—we and the skeptic alike, in spite of his philosophy.

Among the beliefs, otherwise known as values, that stand out as supreme for us are the beliefs in freedom and justice. They are social in the sense that they are commonly shared. The

individual is democratized by incorporating these values, like any others freighted with importance, into his personal value system. This manner of speaking seems to describe the process of education more aptly than the familiar phrase, "socializing the individual," which to some liberals carries the unhappy suggestion of social patternism under pressure. How to abet this change in the individual constitutes, the writer believes, the most delicate and difficult problem of instruction in the schools.

The first step in the solution of this problem is curricular in character—opening up, with the concurrence of the pupils, the study of issues involving the essential values of democratic life. The instructor looks beyond the student's interests; for these interests are seldom adequate to determine the nature and direction of his educational growth. Allegiance to values may be crystallized prematurely, that is, established without a sufficient grasp of possibilities. The instructional process is conceived as mediating between the individual, on the one hand, and values, on the other. The values, however, even the values of democracy, become the individual's by his own election. He is led beside the still waters but does the drinking himself. The future of democracy is thus committed to the uncoerced intelligence of men, without benefit of bludgeon or blackjack.

Educational liberalism is naturally inclined to favor this learner-anchored theory, not only for its democratic

spirit, but also for its efficiency, because the activity of the student is known to be a greater factor in learning than the activity of the instructor. This is what Louis T. Bénézet, president of Allegheny College, means when he says that the best kind of education is education by impulsion and not compulsion. By the same token it is central in this outlook that there should be greater emphasis on the intellectual reaction of pupils in the schools; for how can an individual learn to think without a chance to think? Some of our liberal-minded teachers, however, may still hold skeptically aloof because their faith in democracy cannot stand the strain of reduction to faith in the individual. Who does not occasionally have a troubled conscience about the boundary between liberty and authority? Still, these same teachers will probably be even less inclined to assume that political, economic, psychiatric, and pedagogical experts¹ are competent to select the values by which America should live; for they understand that expert proposal, plus popular disposal, is the order of democracy.

THE URGE FOR INDEPENDENCE

Faith in democracy is definitely bolstered by new evidence concerning the behavior of individuals in problem situations. I refer particularly to personal problems when handled by the votaries of nondirective counseling,

¹ The reader might well be reminded of the definition of an expert credited to Woodrow Wilson: "anybody twenty miles from home."

described by Rogers in numerous publications (7, 8, 10, 11, 12).

What really happens when the facts are mirrored to an individual involved in the stress of a personal conflict and he is left to make his own decision? Let us briefly examine a case reported by Rogers. The case concerns a young woman who was failing in her graduate work in spite of a previous good record. "In the course of a number of interviews she explored many aspects of her disturbing conflicts, and talked out some of her feeling of wishing to be dependent" (9:11). She was quite critical of the education she was receiving. She was worried about a selection of courses that did not make sense to her, about her lack of whole-hearted participation. She had a smattering of notes, she said, with no inclination to look over the stuff again. She was troubled about continuing longer in school. Let us follow counselor and subject more closely in the case record:

COUNSELOR: That is, having these various smatterings makes you wonder whether going ahead in course work might not seem to you like, "Here's some more of this same old stuff." Is that it?

SUBJECT: That's the feeling I have. . . . Well now, I wonder if I've been going around doing that, getting smatterings of things, and not getting hold, not really getting down to things.

COUNSELOR: Maybe you've been getting just spoonfuls here and there rather than really digging in somewhere rather deeply.

SUBJECT: Mhm. That's why I say—[slowly and very thoughtfully] well, with that sort of a foundation, well, it's really up to me. I mean, it seems to be really apparent to me that I *can't depend on someone else*

to give me an education. [Very softly] I'll really have to get it myself.

COUNSELOR: It really begins to come home—there's only one person that can educate you—a realization that perhaps nobody else *can give* you an education.

SUBJECT: Mhm. [Long pause] I have all the symptoms of fright. [Laughs softly.]

COUNSELOR: Fright? That that is a scary thing, is that what you mean?

SUBJECT: Mhm. [Very long pause.]

COUNSELOR: Do you want to say any more about what you mean by that? That it really does give you the symptoms of fright?

SUBJECT: [Laughs] I, uh—I don't know whether I quite know. I mean, well, it really seems like I'm cut loose [pause], and it seems that I'm very—I don't know—in a vulnerable position, but I, uh, I brought this up and it, uh, somehow it almost came out without my saying it. It seems to be—it's something I let out.

COUNSELOR: Hardly a part of you.

SUBJECT: Well, I felt surprised.

COUNSELOR: As though, "Well for goodness sake, did I say that?" [Both chuckle]

The subject made further attempts to describe her sudden feeling of fear and strength, which the counselor reflects as we return to the case report:

COUNSELOR: You feel that it's something deep and strong, and surging forth, and at the same time you just feel as though you'd cut yourself loose from any support when you say it.

SUBJECT: Mhm. Maybe that's—I don't know—it's a disturbance of a kind of pattern I've been carrying around, I think.

COUNSELOR: It sort of shakes a rather significant pattern, jars it loose.

SUBJECT: Mhm. [Pause. Then cautiously, but with conviction] I, I think—I don't know, but I have the feeling that then I am going to begin to *do* more things that I know I should do. . . . There are so many things that I need to do. It seems in so many ave-

nues of my living I have to work out new ways of behaving, but—maybe—I can see myself doing a little better in some things [9:12-13].

Without a prescription or a directive, without even a suggestion from the counselor, this young lady threw off her old dependence and became a self-responsible person. She chose maturity instead of infancy; independence rather than dependence. This type of choice, Rogers says, is "remarkably stable and permanent." A year later, in a follow-up interview, the young woman's adjustment was greatly improved.

In passing, the writer experiences a peculiar satisfaction in calling attention to the sudden realization of this graduate student that she "*can't depend on someone else*" to give her an education. The misapprehension would be amusing if it were not so tragic—and so tragically common. Yet what other conclusion can one draw from the lecture-and-listen method of so many college classrooms and the read-and-remember routine of so many teachers in the lower schools.

INDEPENDENCE VERSUS DEPENDENCE

We are intent on reshaping our schools in harmony with the principles of democracy and, indeed, in reshaping our society as a whole. The pressure of authority still weighs heavily in the schools and favors the development of its counterpart, a spirit of dependence, in the generation of learners. *Life* remarks editorially that the 1949 crop of college grad-

uates, as shown by a Fortune Survey, prefer the shelter of a great corporation to a business of their own, and security to a chance to take a chance (6). Outside the schools the trend is much in the same direction. Moreover, the inclination to sacrifice independence for dependence, freedom for security, is not a mere local phenomenon. Hence men of little faith in democracy and of much faith in communism have come to think that we are engulfed in a tidal wave of the future—caught, as the Communists believe, in a deterministic drift toward Marxism, as if the will of free men counted for naught and the dogmatic theory of the Marxians were a transcript of the thinking of Almighty God.

True, we have taken steps toward the greater security of unfortunate members of our society who, by no fault of their own, have been left by the wayside on the road to prosperity; but America always has invoked authority in the interest of justice and can do so without violating democratic principles, without degenerating into a cow-pasture civilization. Now independence, now dependence, gets the nod for the role it shall play, but neither is ever bowed off the stage or dismissed from the cast, except by the all-or-nothing mind. The "both-and" solution of this problem reveals a twofold governmental structure in which liberty and justice are complementary principles and form the mainstays of the nation.

There are philosophers who tell us

that the urge for dependence runs as deep as the longing for a rock of ages and the everlasting arms, that it is the fountainhead of religion. Certainly it runs very deep. But so also does the urge for independence. One can hardly forget that the U.S.A. was born of the spirit of '76, of a death-defying drive for liberty. Is it probable that this hard-won freedom, so bitterly defended down the years, will be bartered for a mess of pottage? Soundings from the depths of human consciousness answer in the negative. On the relative strength of the urges for liberty and security in personal dynamics, clinical evidence reveals that, in the final showdown, liberty, though it beckons to a rougher road, is chosen in preference to security. The following statement from Rogers bears directly on this point:

I find that the urge for a greater degree of independence, the desire for a self-determined integration, the tendency to strive, even through much pain, toward a socialized maturity, is as strong as—no, is stronger than—the desire for comfortable dependence, the need to rely upon external authority for assurance [9:16].

The action of the graduate student previously cited was not the exception but the rule. Indeed, adds Rogers after the study of thousands of cases: "I have yet to find the individual who, when he examines his situation deeply, and feels that he perceives it clearly, deliberately chooses dependence" . . . [9:17]. In a word, the psychological evidence supports freedom of action as the basic American dynamic.

So long as the Republicans keep extolling the sacrosanctity of liberty and the Democrats the sacrosanctity of security, there is little likelihood that America will lose its democratic flexibility and balance in the present turmoil of world affairs.

A FINAL WORD

Further democratization of instruction quite obviously requires a softening of the pressure of authority, a fuller trust in the individual as ruler of himself, and, indeed, as Hutchins (4) suggests, as ruler of the nation. The aim of this article has been to indicate how methods of treating individuals in the schools, high and low, can be modified to further this end. It proposes a wider use of the problem situation as the point of departure in teaching, in order thereby to accent independent intellectual activities that lead to knowledge, rather than dependent memory activities that store knowledge away. The discussion has spread over the full range of formal education because the fundamental laws of learning apply throughout. The lecture-and-listen method of the colleges, like the read-and-remember method of the lower schools, rests on a mistaken notion of both the end and the means of instruction. This is not to say that the lecture has no place in the educational program or that it has not been equipped by capable instructors with accessories that make it a more serviceable vehicle. But as our main reliance its day is done. The citizens of a democracy should be

trained for intellectual action, not merely handed the pattern of another's thought. They should be trained for independence, not dependence; for it is freedom that provides at once the basic dynamic of democracy and the deeper satisfaction of the individual.

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SOCIAL-STUDIES TEXTBOOKS AND ATOMIC ENERGY

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THE following words of David Lilienthal, chairman of the Atomic Energy Commission, were spoken over two years ago:

Atomic energy and scientific discoveries have not and need not change the fundamental principles of democracy, which rest upon faith in the ultimate wisdom of the people, *when they have been truthfully and clearly informed of the essential facts.*¹

THE SCHOOL'S RESPONSIBILITY

This statement still constitutes a challenge to teachers and schools because the public schools have major responsibility for helping Americans be "truthfully and clearly informed of the essential facts," and because that job is yet to be done. There are other persons in American education who must recognize the same challenge—the authors and producers of the learning materials which are necessary for effective classroom work. Among the various types of learning materials, textbooks reach more pupils than do any of the others. Perhaps that fact imposes a peculiar responsibility on the persons who produce textbooks—in this case, a responsibility to provide

an adequate treatment of atomic-energy developments.

The study of atomic energy will probably be concentrated in two fields of the typical high-school curriculum. The scientific aspects will be treated in physical-science classes while the social issues will be considered, if at all, in the social studies. Ideally, a school would probably focus resources from both departments on an integrated study of atomic-energy developments. Practically, there will be many schools in which the social-studies teacher must find his own way. Many social-studies teachers are likely to be learning along with their students about the uses and social effects of atomic-energy products. This fact increases the responsibility of persons who prepare social-studies textbook materials. In effect, they are prompting the teacher who, like many intelligent Americans, may see the critical importance of atomic energy in the modern world without having enough information to deal with the problems.

AN ANALYSIS OF TEXTBOOKS

Examination of forty-seven social-studies textbooks for junior and senior high school, published between 1945

¹ From an address delivered by Mr Lilienthal in Crawfordsville, Indiana, September 22, 1947. Italics are the writer's.

and 1949, seems to show an increased awareness on the part of authors and publishers that their customers expect some information about atomic energy. Of eleven books published in 1945, eight made no mention of atomic energy, while the other three told briefly of the use of the bomb in World War II. Of the seventeen books published in 1948 and 1949, only two lacked some

however, varies enormously from book to book and, in most cases, is open to question. Table 1 presents a brief summary of the evidence obtained from examining the books. In preparing the table, references which presented no information, but were bare mentions, were not included.

Table 1 shows that authors of American and world-history textbooks

TABLE 1
ANALYSIS OF FORTY-SEVEN SOCIAL-STUDIES TEXTBOOKS ACCORDING
TO THE ATOMIC-ENERGY TOPICS TREATED*

Topic	Junior High School United States History	Senior High School United States History	World History	Geography	Junior High School Civics	Twelfth-Grade Social Studies	Total
Atomic bomb in World War II.	9	6	7	0	0	1	23
Need for international control, United Nations Atomic Energy Commission.	7	5	4	2	2	3	23
Historical development of atomic energy.	0	0	3	1†	0	0	4
Peacetime uses of products.	1	0	1	1	0	0	3
Uranium as raw material.	1	0	0	2	0	0	3
No mention	1	1	2	5	2	5	16

* The author wishes to acknowledge the assistance, in the preliminary stages of the examination of textbooks, of Miss Mary Green, Henderson Teachers College, Arkadelphia, Arkansas, and of Mr. George J. Frey, Kansas State Department of Public Instruction.

† Essentially a science discussion.

mention of atomic energy. Two of the books with a 1945 copyright date appeared in revision, one in 1947 and the other in 1948; there was no reference to atomic energy in the 1945 edition of one, and a bare mention of the bomb in the other. The revisions provided approximately two pages of discussion in the first, and three in the second. There has been a definite trend to include some atomic energy information in social-studies textbooks.

The adequacy of the treatment,

have included more references to atomic energy than those of geographies, civics, and twelfth-grade social-studies textbooks. This distribution might be expected, since any discussion of World War II and the United Nations would be incomplete without such references. The use of the bomb at Hiroshima and Nagasaki was mentioned in every history book that included any information on atomic energy. A majority of these histories discussed, or at least mentioned, the need

for international control of atomic warfare. The space allotments in books in which reference was made to atomic energy ranged from one-fourth page to four pages in the junior high school United States histories, from slightly less than one page to over three in the senior high school United States histories, and from fifteen lines to six pages in the world-history textbooks.

In all social-studies subjects, most of the textbooks confine the discussion, beyond the use of the bomb in the Second World War and efforts at international control, to generalities. Authors seem to agree that American democracy must "meet the challenge of the Atomic Age," without being specific about what the Atomic Age means or what kinds of challenges we should prepare to meet. They agree that the "dream" of harnessing atomic energy for peacetime uses is an alluring one, but, in most cases, they dismiss it at that. One notable exception was found in a world-history textbook whose authors give some interesting facts about research with radioactive isotopes and other constructive applications of atomic-energy products.

In addition to the discussion of the use of atomic bombs and the need for international control, atomic energy is mentioned in various connections. Several authors introduce more standardized topics by referring to atomic energy and the "Atomic Age." Apparently they consider the reference to be a good interest-catcher—one which proves their book is "up to date." In

one textbook the part played by members of minority groups in the development of the bomb is mentioned, an excellent illustration of a fact which Americans must learn. Information about atomic energy thus provided, however, is not large. Another book, with two index references to atomic energy, states (1) that the bomb makes world order imperative and (2) that rural life may be changed because people, fearing the bomb, may avoid living in cities. One new geography textbook, on each of five different pages, makes reference to atomic energy in a phrase or sentence, without giving specific information. In this book, as in many of the others examined, a casual inspection of the index entries leads the reader to expect a full discussion of atomic energy.

It is significant that the two aspects of atomic-energy development which are most commonly treated are the bomb and the need for international control. It is equally significant that, in all forty-seven books, there is only one adequate discussion of applications of atomic-energy products in medicine, industry, and agriculture and in research in these and other fields. There are only two accounts which are full enough to be meaningful of the history of atomic-energy development and only one description of the functions of the United States Atomic Energy Commission. Nowhere is adequate consideration given to the possible effects of atomic-energy developments on our economic system and social institutions. In the forty-

seven textbooks, no real discussion, nor even a statement of some of the crucial issues with which the American public must almost certainly contend, appears.

SUGGESTIONS FOR TOPICS

Obviously, only selected aspects of atomic energy can, or should, be discussed in a given social-studies textbook. Obviously, no one can say what topics "go" where. Atomic-energy developments are expanding continuously. Social-studies curriculums are not to be dictated. There are some topics, however, which seem appropriate for particular social-studies areas. The story of how men, through the centuries, have speculated and, more recently, experimented until our present level of knowledge about nuclear physics has been achieved, for example, is a part of world history. Some topics would seem to fall properly in a textbook for American history and government—the Atomic Energy Commission and its operations, for instance. Perhaps a listing of possible topics may serve as a basis for consideration by authors and publishers who are preparing or revising social-studies textbooks and for teachers who are selecting learning materials for their classes:

1. The history of atomic-energy research from Democritus to Fermi. Here is an opportunity to demonstrate the cumulative and accelerating nature of scientific research and the fact that many nationalities and cultural groups have contributed to one of the basic developments in modern science. Students will acquire a degree of familiarity with some

of the fundamental terms and concepts of nuclear physics. Eventually the currently common attitude of "I can't understand it, so why try" can be altered.

2. Atomic-energy research in the United States; prewar and wartime efforts; the part of universities before, during, and since the war; why the efforts have been centered in the United States.

3. The duties and operations of the Atomic Energy Commission today. The major installations, such as Oak Ridge, Hanford, Argonne, Los Alamos, and Brookhaven; the type of work done at each. How best to meet security needs, with a maximum of civilian control and a minimum of danger to the civil rights of individuals. Many Americans do not know that the Atomic Energy Commission represents civilian management; many who do fail to realize that those persons who favor outright military control may cause the issue to be reopened at any time and that the problem of civil rights is far from solved. How judge the effectiveness with which the experts—the Lilienthals—are discharging their trust? It was apparent that many Americans had no factual basis for thinking critically about the recent attacks made on the Atomic Energy Commission by a member of the United States Senate nor about the "security" involved in shipping radioactive isotopes to Europe.

4. The existing status in the United States of ownership and control, that is, public or private, of basic atomic-energy processes; the related question of the development and distribution of atomic-energy products by public or private agencies. Many Americans assume that the issue of public versus private ownership was automatically settled by the circumstances under which the major strides in atomic-energy production were taken—the pressure of war, the enormous capital investment required, and the pooling of research by hundreds of scientists and the institutions by which they were employed. Continuing public ownership may seem probable, but

the issue is not closed; to assume that it is may invite the few to seek great gains at the expense of the many. A majority of Americans probably do not realize that private industry, through a contract system, is actually doing most of the work of atomic-energy development while ownership remains in the public right.

5. The use of radioactive isotopes in industry; in medical diagnosis and treatment; and in research in agriculture, industry, and medicine. Many common elements—carbon, salt, iodine, sulphur, and phosphorus, for example—can be "tagged" and traced by adding small amounts of their radioactive isotope, or twin. They can be followed into plants or through the human body by means of a Geiger counter, because of the radiations given off. This has enabled doctors to diagnose more exactly thyroid and circulatory disorders, for instance, to make more precise location of a brain tumor in preparation for an operation, and to carry on cancer research more effectively—to mention only a few of the medical uses of radioactive isotopes. In industry these isotopes are being used for a variety of purposes: in rayon manufacture, for example, the step of determining when the sulphur which must be added in an early stage and then removed has been eliminated; in gauges that can measure the thickness of a sheet of plastic with an accuracy of one hundred-thousandth of an inch; in research on alloys, rubber processing, and the manufacture of steel. In agriculture, the effectiveness of different types of fertilizer and different methods of applying it are being investigated. Research on the basic process of photosynthesis is being carried on with tagged elements. Eventually major changes in food production and food supply may be brought about. The potential effects of these uses of radioactive isotopes on American life are bound to be great. To give a single example, medical research and treatment through radioactive materials may combine with other existing factors to lengthen the

average life span and accelerate markedly the current trend toward an older population, with all the implications that this change will have for our social institutions, our social services, and our total economy.

6. Potential development of atomic power plants, which will probably become practicable within a generation, or sooner; conditions under which they may render obsolete today's power plants, that is, where supplies of coal, water power, and oil are scarce or inconveniently located, where new industrial plants are being built and there is no large capital investment in more conventional plants; the possibilities of their use for industrial production in areas of the earth where, because of meager energy resources, transportation difficulties, or technological backwardness, a large industrial plant has not yet been developed (as in the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, China, and India, and the Pacific Northwest of the United States); possible effect in the world market on developed industrial areas, in which plants may become obsolete but continue to be used because of capital investment; meaning of these power plants for the conservation problem, for the coal and oil industries which might have to adjust to radically different conditions.

7. Growth of new industries connected with atomic-energy development, for example, plants manufacturing (a) radiation-detection devices worn by personnel of plants and laboratories in which radioactive materials must be handled—lapel badges, "fountain-pen" type, etc.; (b) instruments for detecting and measuring radioactivity, the Geiger counter being the most common; and (c) instruments for handling radioactive materials safely—extension arms, boxes and screens with mirrors, and other implements which technicians can use to carry on experiments and industrial processes behind protective shields. The place of these new industries in the national economy.

8. Vocational opportunities offered by

atomic-energy installations and related industries; the kind of background and training needed.

9. Known and potential resources of uranium and pitchblende and the location of major known deposits; chief sources of United States supplies; the search that is going on for new deposits, encouraged by the United States Atomic Energy Commission; major facts about the mining and early stages of processing.

10. The meaning of atomic warfare; the ethical, strategic, and psychological problems involved in the use of atomic bombs as weapons of offense. Can a nation bomb its allies if they are occupied by the enemy? How best deal with atomic attack on this country if it should come? Civilian-defense experts fear that mass hysteria would result in more disruption of American life, and perhaps in more actual injuries, than would the atomic attack. Without decrying the horrors of atomic warfare, the experts realize that most Americans have so little factual knowledge of what to expect or do that, in a crisis, they would be likely to surrender to blind fear instead of taking the constructive action which would be possible. The results of mass efforts at flight from New York City through the available outlets if atomic attack were threatened can be imagined. As one scientist put it, "Panic—piling up in subways, shoving each other off the George Washington Bridge—can kill you just as surely as radiation."

11. The atomic bomb in international relations and in the formation of United States foreign policy; the United Nations and efforts at international control of atomic energy.

USE OF ILLUSTRATIONS

There are illustrations concerned with atomic energy in fourteen of the forty-seven textbooks examined. Like the verbal accounts, they emphasize the bomb and the need for international control. The Bikini mushroom,

which has come to be known as "the trademark" among persons concerned with popularizing atomic-energy information, is easily the illustration most frequently used. One cannot but wonder what youngsters will learn from a half- or full-page stereotyped picture of the mushroom, especially when the legend merely identifies without explaining, as is true in several cases. A photograph of the bronze tablet marking the spot where the first sustained chain reaction took place, epoch-making as was that event, does not rank high in learning value. Illustrations, such as a diagram showing the principle of chain reaction, a chart representing proposals for international control of atomic energy, a map showing installations of the United States Atomic Energy Commission, accompanied by an explanatory legend, and cartoons taken from contemporary journals seem more profitable subjects for class study and discussion.

Only eight of the textbooks make any reference to atomic energy in end-of-chapter study aids, while in eleven students will find suggestions for further reading about atomic energy. In only one or two, however, is there a bibliography which gives evidence of careful selection. None of the textbooks contain citations of films, filmstrips, records, or pamphlets. It is true that there have been relatively few readable materials for high-school youth and that there is still need for books, pamphlets, films, etc., on various aspects of atomic energy. Still some useful references have been

available, and the number has increased rapidly within the past two years. Interested persons can easily obtain bibliographies of books, pamphlets, films, filmstrips, and recordings.²

² Available without charge from the United States Office of Education, Washington 25, D.C., are the following four bibliographies:

- a) Israel Light (compiler), *Bibliography of Bibliographies on Atomic Energy*.
- b) Israel Light (compiler), *Introductory Bibliography on Atomic Energy*.
- c) Israel Light (compiler), *Teaching Aids in Atomic Energy*.
- d) Israel Light (compiler), *Inexpensive Books and Pamphlets on Atomic Energy*.
- e) "Atomic Energy—Here To Stay," *School Life*, XXXI (March, 1949, Supplement), 1-13. (Can be purchased for ten cents from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.)

The advent of the Atomic Age has been a sudden and bewildering event to those Americans whose scientific background is small, and many social-studies teachers and authors are in that group. Perhaps it is encouraging that, four years after Hiroshima, there is any discussion of atomic energy in social-studies textbooks and that index entries on the subject exist. It is a responsibility of authors, publishers, and teachers in the months and years ahead to see that there are more index entries on atomic energy and that they lead American youth to an understanding of basic social problems connected with this latest manifestation of our complex machine-age culture.

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PREDICTING VOCATIONAL SUCCESS

DOROTHY LEGGITT

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EVALUATION through self-appraisal is basic to vocational success. The high-school guidance counselor should develop in students the habit of intelligent self-appraisal. If a young person is trained to look at his qualifications and interests in an objective way, he can be his own "vocational guidance counselor" during his whole life. That should be our goal.

THREE STEPS IN GUIDANCE

There are three steps in determining the suitability of an occupation to an individual. The first is perhaps the most important: to discover the student's interest in, and preference for, a vocational field. This can be determined through the school's testing program or through conferences with the student and analyses of his interests.

The next step is to study the requirements for a particular job and the mental and physical qualities necessary for success. The occupations course is the best medium for acquiring this information, supplemented by visual aids, try-out courses, and other sources of vocational information.

The third step is the crucial one. Can the student make a success of his

work in the business world? The best way for the school to help a student answer this question is through arranging actual work experience, with the aid of specialized courses dealing in more detail with the work in his chosen field.

SELF-TRAINING

Guidance workers may administer tests and direct students through their more mature understanding of both the job and the personality of the student. However, to train students to appraise their own qualifications objectively is important also. When determining his interest in a particular vocational field, the student should be trained to ask himself these questions:

What do I like to do?

What school subjects containing information about this vocation do I enjoy?

Are teacher evaluations significant in aiding me to define my work interest?

What do the tests of interests—in subject-matter fields, in occupational choice, and in work skills—indicate?

What do the tests of personality and academic ability reveal about my choice of school subjects and their significance mentally and vocationally?

Once a student, with the aid of his vocational adviser, has determined his

A COMPOSITE RATING SCALE—Continued

interest in a special field, he should ask himself the following questions:

What is the place of this occupation in the total industrial picture?

Does this work require a highly developed skill, or does it require a number of skills?

How much training will this job require?

What kind of working conditions will I find in this field?

What will the people I work with be like?

How permanent will this work be?

Do I have an opportunity for advancement?

If the student then feels that he can fill the requirements of a vocation, he must then answer these questions:

What jobs does the community offer that my personality and education approximate?

Is there a demand for a worker with my training and experience?

If the student has had an opportunity to get some experience in his chosen field, he must ask himself:

Did I succeed among my fellow-workers?
Did I receive satisfactory promotion?

Training high-school youngsters to be objective about themselves is not an easy task; but it is a necessary one. Only after long practice in self-appraisal and the development of the habit of asking pertinent questions will objectivity come.

A RATING SCALE

One of the best methods of training for self-appraisal is through the use of

a rating scale. The composite rating scale presented here is designed for the use of high-school students. A list of personal qualities and general criteria is given in the left-hand column. The student rates himself as low, medium, or high in these personal qualities, or as requiring such factors as "satisfactory compensation," and places a dot in the proper column under the heading, "Do I have or require?" He then connects the dots, making a graph of his "vocational personality."

The next column concerns the qualifications necessary for success in the student's chosen vocational field. From the information he has acquired about this field, he rates the personal qualities as not required, helpful, and necessary. When he connects the dots under the heading, "Does the job I want have or require?" he has a graph of the personality required by the job.

If the student has had work experience, or is now employed, he makes a similar graph for the third column, "Did, or does, my job have or require?" A comparison of the three graphs will immediately reveal any serious discrepancies between the type of occupation a student wishes to pursue and his suitability for it.

This rating scale gives excellent training in mature self-appraisal, as well as serving as a handy index to vocational personality.

SUBJECT COMBINATIONS AND TEACHING LOADS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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ONE of the major educational problems of this decade is the shortage of qualified teachers. It may reasonably be supposed that this condition will be magnified during the next several decades. Related closely to this larger problem are the problems of teaching assignments and loads in the secondary school.

The present study is part of a comprehensive survey for which detailed data were secured from the vast majority of secondary-school teachers in Colorado. The number of usable responses varied from one phase of the study to another, but in each instance schools of all sizes were well represented. Although based on Colorado, conditions in other states are sufficiently similar in many respects to make the findings and conclusions applicable on a broad scale.

SUBJECT COMBINATIONS

In the phase of the study dealing with subject combinations, usable replies were received from 2,128 teachers offering instruction in thirteen fields. The data in Table 1 indicate the degree to which assignments in a given field tend to be concentrated

within that field. For example, of over six hundred teachers who instructed in English, about 67 per cent had the

TABLE 1

CONCENTRATION OF ASSIGNMENTS WITHIN VARIOUS TEACHING FIELDS SHOWING THE NUMBER AND PER CENT OF TEACHERS INSTRUCTING, WITH MAJOR AND MINOR ASSIGNMENT IN EACH FIELD

SUBJECT FIELD	MAJOR ASSIGNMENT IN FIELD		MINOR ASSIGNMENT IN FIELD	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Agriculture.....	42	81	10	19
Art.....	29	66	15	34
Commercial.....	239	80	59	20
English.....	432	67	210	33
Foreign language.....	120	48	132	52
General education.....	8	11	62	89
Home economics.....	116	81	28	19
Industrial arts.....	114	75	37	25
Mathematics.....	282	63	166	37
Music.....	121	75	40	25
Physical education.....	105	48	113	52
Science.....	242	54	208	46
Social studies.....	278	57	213	43

major part of their assignment in that field. Approximately 33 per cent offered some instruction in English but were assigned chiefly in another field.

The data in Figure 1 reveal another facet of subject combinations. The figures indicate the dispersion of as-

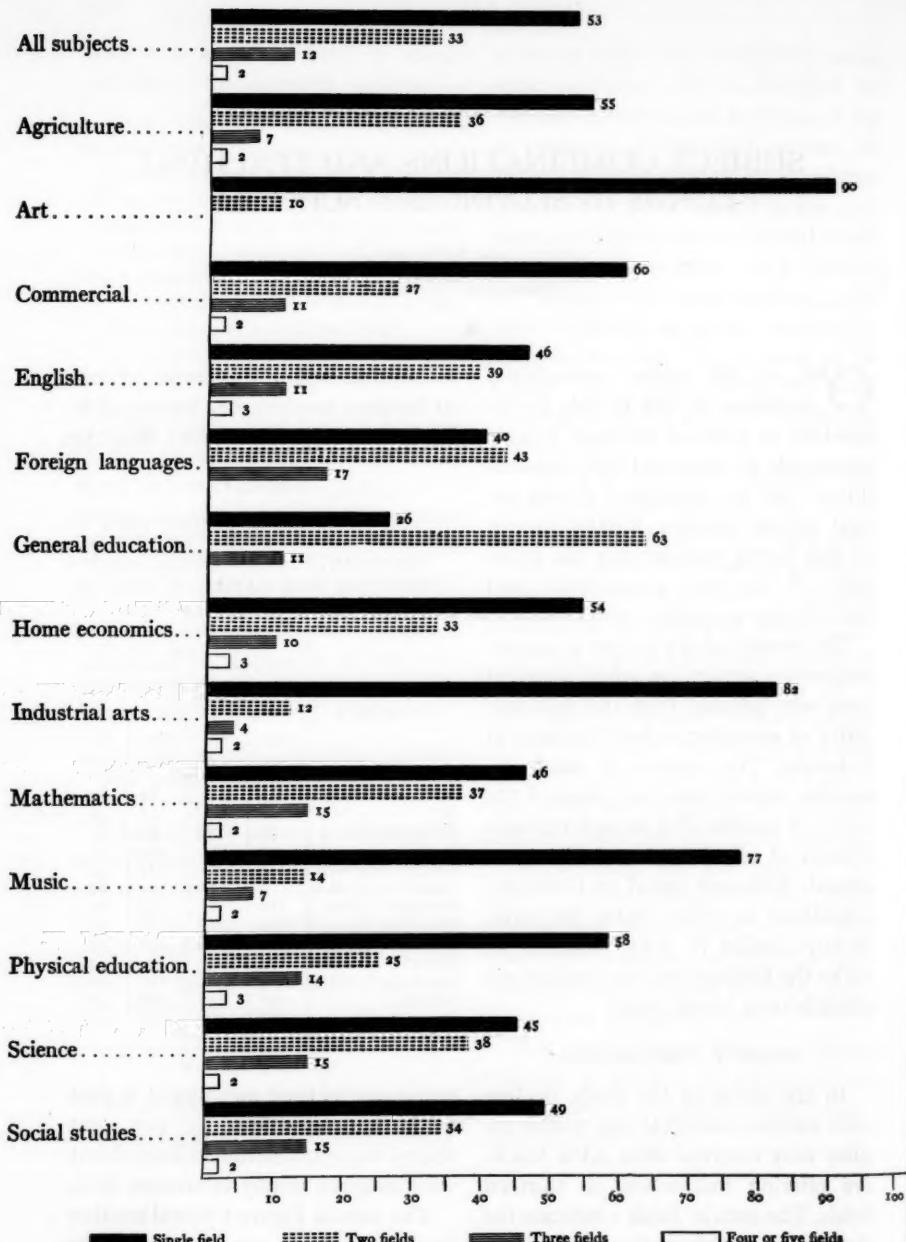


FIG. 1.—Approximate per cents of teachers offering instruction in one, two, or more fields in terms of fields of major assignment.

signments in one, two, three, four, and five fields, according to the field in which the major assignment falls. About 53 per cent of all teachers were assigned in a single field, although considerable variation among the fields is evident. Approximately 33 per cent of all teachers were assigned in two fields, 12 per cent in three fields, and 2 per cent in four or five fields. Less than 1 per cent were assigned in five fields, and no instructional assignments involving more than five fields were reported. An analysis of the replies indicates that assignments involving more than two fields were rare in larger schools. It is evident that, as the enrolment of the school increased, the percentage of teachers assigned in a single field increased also. A study made earlier provides more data on teaching combinations in schools of various sizes.¹

Prevalent teaching combinations in various fields.—In Table 2 the pattern of assignment is dealt with by fields. The field shown in italics in each group is that of major assignment. The fields in the combinations are given in alphabetical order with no reference to the degree of assignment in each field. Only the combinations most frequently reported are shown.

In agriculture, only three combinations involving two fields were reported, and, as the number of responses was small, the data should be interpreted with caution. Combina-

tions involving more than two fields were too infrequent to be of significance.

In the field of art, about 90 per cent taught art only. The number of cases involving other fields was too small to yield valid results. In general education, usable responses from those teachers whose major assignments were in this field were too few to yield significant results. In music, the number of teachers involved in more than two fields was not significant. Very few combinations in physical education included four or five fields.

By disregarding fields of major and minor assignment and adding the figures for like combinations (such as English with foreign language and foreign language with English), the more prevalent two-field assignments for all fields were determined. These two-field assignments were as follows, with the figures indicating the percentage each combination involved of the total number of teachers assigned in two fields:

English and foreign language	14 per cent
Mathematics and science	14 per cent
English and social studies	12 per cent
Commercial and English	5 per cent
English and general education	4 per cent

The more prevalent three-field combinations were determined in a similar fashion, although less concentration was apparent:

English, foreign language, and social studies	9 per cent
English, mathematics, and social studies	9 per cent
Mathematics, physical education, and science	6 per cent

¹ Stephen Romine, "Improving Teaching Combinations and Assignments in Secondary Schools," *School Review*, LIV (November, 1946), 537-44.

TABLE 2

COMBINATIONS OF SUBJECT FIELDS MOST FREQUENTLY REPORTED AND PER CENT OF TEACHERS IN THE GROUP TEACHING THE COMBINATION

Major Subject	Field and Fields Combined with It	Per Cent of Teachers*	Major Subject	Field and Fields Combined with It	Per Cent of Teachers*
<i>Agriculture</i>			<i>Mathematics</i>		
Two fields (3):†			Two fields (11):		
Science.....	47		Science.....	47	
Industrial arts.....	33		Commercial.....	13	
<i>Commercial</i>			Three fields (16):		
Two fields (11):			English and social studies.....	16	
English.....	39		Physical education and science.....	14	
Social studies.....	12		Science and social studies.....	12	
Mathematics.....	11		Foreign language and science.....	12	
Three fields (18):			Four fields (2 reported once each)		
Science and social studies.....	11				
Mathematics and science.....	11				
Four and five fields (1 each)					
<i>English</i>			<i>Music</i>		
Two fields (10):			Two fields (7):		
Foreign language.....	37		Social studies.....	35	
Social studies.....	28		English.....	29	
General education.....	17				
Three fields (24):					
Foreign language and social studies.....	25		<i>Physical education</i>		
Science and social studies.....	12		Two fields (10):		
Four fields (14 reported once each)			Social studies.....	23	
<i>Foreign language</i>			Mathematics.....	19	
Two fields (7):			General education.....	19	
English.....	62		Three fields (11):		
Three fields (11):			Home economics and science.....	13	
English and social studies.....	35		Mathematics and science.....	13	
			Science and social studies.....	13	
			Industrial arts and mathematics.....	13	
<i>Home economics</i>					
Two fields (8):					
Science.....	35		<i>Science</i>		
Physical education.....	27		Two fields (12):		
English.....	19		Mathematics.....	48	
Three fields (9):			Physical education.....	10	
Mathematics and science.....	25		Social studies.....	9	
Physical education and science.....	17		Three fields (18):		
Four fields (4 reported once each)			Mathematics and physical education.....	19	
<i>Industrial arts</i>			Mathematics and social studies.....	17	
Two fields (5):			Four fields (5 reported once each)		
Science.....	43				
Physical education.....	21		<i>Social studies</i>		
Three fields (2):			Two fields (11):		
Mathematics and science.....	75		English.....	39	
Four fields (3 reported once each)			Physical education.....	18	
			Science.....	13	
			Three fields (23):		
			Physical education and science.....	12	
			English and foreign language.....	10	
			English and science.....	10	
			English and mathematics.....	10	
			Four fields (7 reported once each)		

* Table is read as follows: in 3 two-field combinations reported for agriculture, 47 per cent of the combinations included agriculture and science; 33 per cent, agriculture and industrial arts.

† Figures in parentheses indicate the number of different combinations reported.

Mathematics, science, and social studies.....	5 per cent
English, science, and social studies.....	4 per cent

It may be observed that fields commonly found in two-field combinations frequently are recombined in combinations involving three fields.

Some stability of two- and three-field combinations is apparent if comparison is made with an earlier study made by the writer.² At the same time, the great number and variety of other combinations which are not so frequently reported suggest that many of the combinations are temporary and probably occur more or less accidentally.

TEACHING LOAD

In this phase of the study the Douglass formula³ was used in determining the teaching load. The subject coefficient was disregarded, and the number of pupils in a class was counted in all subject fields. This formula considers the number of periods spent in the classroom a week; the number of duplicate class sections; the number of pupils in classes a week; the number of periods spent a week in study-hall supervision, student activities, teachers' meetings, administrative and supervisory duties, and other co-operations; and the length of class periods.

Teaching loads in subject fields.—The data in Table 3 reveal the lower

and upper quartiles of teaching loads in subject fields and the median load in each. It is possible also to compare the load of teachers assigned solely in a given field with that of teachers whose major assignments were in the same field but who taught also in one or more other fields. Usable responses were received from 1,919 teachers. Some of the responses which were valid in determining subject combinations were incomplete with respect to teaching load; these responses were not used in this phase of the study. No load was determined in general education as few teachers apparently had the major part of their assignment in this field.

Variations in the interquartile range and in the median are evident among the various fields. In all cases except agriculture and English, the range was greater in combination assignments than in single-field assignments. With the exception of agriculture, mathematics, and social studies, the median load was higher in combination assignments than in those involving only a single field. Using the figures in the total columns, the greatest range was in the field of music. The lowest median load was in physical education (26.70), and the highest was in the commercial field (30.61).

A comparison of teaching loads of men and women.—Table 4 permits a comparison of the teaching loads of men and women in the various subject fields. Men reported somewhat heavier median loads in art, commercial fields, foreign language, and social

² *Ibid.*

³ Harl R. Douglass, *Organization and Administration of Secondary Schools*, p. 113. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1945.

studies. Women indicated heavier loads in English, mathematics, music, physical education, and science. In most cases the differences were quite small in terms of the total load. In the majority of fields the interquartile range was greater for men than for women. Although the data do not

give a complete picture, it is interesting to note that there were more men in the fields of agriculture, industrial arts, mathematics, music, physical education, science, and social studies. Women predominated in art, commercial fields, English, foreign language, and home economics.

TABLE 3
TEACHING LOAD OF 1,919 SECONDARY-SCHOOL INSTRUCTORS IN TERMS OF ASSIGNMENT
IN A SINGLE FIELD AND IN A COMBINATION OF TWO OR MORE FIELDS

FIELD OF MAJOR ASSIGNMENT	NUM- BER OF CASES	SINGLE FIELD			COMBINATION OF FIELDS			TOTAL		
		Lower Quar- tile	Upper Quar- tile	Me- dian	Lower Quar- tile	Upper Quar- tile	Me- dian	Lower Quar- tile	Upper Quar- tile	Me- dian
Agriculture.....	39	25.03	31.82	27.75	24.00	28.80	26.40	24.63	30.84	26.88
Art.....	28	27.83	32.79	30.00	*	*	*	27.67	33.00	30.00
Commercial.....	227	26.80	32.80	30.30	27.87	34.30	31.08	27.30	33.34	30.61
English.....	396	25.99	31.89	28.89	27.19	32.48	30.27	26.69	32.19	29.59
Foreign language.....	107	27.42	31.75	29.53	28.15	34.38	31.00	27.80	32.92	30.25
Home economics.....	112	27.21	31.25	28.98	27.28	32.49	29.41	27.21	31.78	29.16
Industrial arts.....	95	26.25	31.17	28.61	24.75	32.25	30.38	25.85	31.53	28.77
Mathematics.....	251	27.06	32.70	30.26	25.14	31.90	28.81	25.81	32.29	29.54
Music.....	94	22.88	34.25	28.50	23.25	35.06	29.70	22.90	34.50	28.88
Physical education.....	76	22.72	28.75	25.61	25.62	36.56	29.70	23.75	31.28	26.70
Science.....	231	26.05	31.50	28.50	25.60	31.57	28.72	25.81	31.57	28.71
Social studies.....	203	25.50	32.11	29.42	25.39	33.10	28.98	25.02	31.82	28.39

* Insufficient number of cases of art in combination with other fields.

TABLE 4
COMPARISON OF TEACHING LOADS OF 858 MEN AND 1,061 WOMEN TEACHERS

FIELD OF MAJOR ASSIGNMENT	MEN				UPPER			
	Number of Cases	Lower Quartile	Upper Quartile	Median	Number of Cases	Lower Quartile	Upper Quartile	Median
Agriculture.....	39	24.63	30.84	26.88
Art.....	9	28.25	32.75	30.50	19	27.88	33.94	30.38
Commercial.....	46	27.21	35.44	31.50	181	27.31	32.88	30.46
English.....	57	25.44	32.94	29.25	339	27.02	32.10	29.62
Foreign language.....	15	30.32	34.25	31.93	92	27.58	32.74	29.80
Home economics.....	112	27.21	31.78	29.16
Industrial arts.....	95	25.85	31.53	28.53
Mathematics.....	146	24.69	32.17	29.00	105	27.24	32.43	30.05
Music.....	63	23.25	34.22	28.62	31	23.06	34.95	30.50
Physical education.....	46	24.12	31.12	26.77	30	23.25	29.79	27.00
Science.....	182	25.45	31.50	28.58	49	27.04	31.69	29.08
Social studies.....	160	25.15	33.00	29.32	103	25.96	31.80	29.02

For the total of 1,919 teachers, the median was 29.34; the lower quartile, 26.07; the upper quartile, 32.33. These are about two units lower, on the average, than the figures reported by Douglass⁴ several years ago. His calculations included the use of the subject coefficient, although it is doubtful if this factor would contribute much to the differences. Some of the teaching loads which were reported were more than three times as great as others, although the interquartile ranges probably give a better picture of the variability of assignments in general.

Teaching loads and sizes of schools.—It is sometimes said that the teaching load is heavier in large high schools

TABLE 5
TEACHING LOAD AND SIZE OF SCHOOL

Number of Teachers on Faculty	Number of Cases	Lower Quartile	Upper Quartile	Median
3-4*	226	24.68	31.01	27.75
5-6	294	24.51	31.78	28.37
7-8	153	24.15	32.37	28.32
9-10	124	25.36	31.94	28.90
11-12	88	27.91	33.35	30.69
13-14	102	26.90	34.59	30.68
15-16	48	26.00	31.75	29.00
17-18	77	26.56	32.21	29.38
19-20	67	26.69	32.32	29.90
21-30†	207	25.09	31.56	28.43
31-40	281	27.85	32.70	30.44
41 and up	252	27.86	32.79	30.56

* Includes a few branch high schools having only two teachers.

† Note change in the step interval.

than in small ones. The figures in Table 5 substantiate this to some degree although the variation in total load is small and the heaviest loads

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 119.

were reported in schools having from eleven to fourteen teachers. Class size is generally greater in larger schools, and in smaller schools the number of

TABLE 6
TEACHING LOAD AND EXPERIENCE

Years of Teaching Experience	Number of Teachers	Lower Quartile	Upper Quartile	Median
1*	167	25.42	32.47	29.17
2-3	235	25.64	33.71	29.36
4-5	176	25.27	31.00	28.29
6-10	359	26.36	32.35	29.53
11-15	283	25.43	32.18	29.00
16-20	208	26.65	32.77	29.78
21 and more	445	27.01	32.07	29.57

* Teachers who are in their first year of experience. Similarly, the category 2-3 means teachers who are in their second and third years of teaching experience.

different preparations to be made daily tends to be greater.

Teaching loads and experience.—In a survey of six states, Evans⁵ reported that the assignments of new and inexperienced teachers were less desirable than those generally held by all teachers in the same states. Another study in Canadian schools revealed similar conditions, although the differences were not statistically significant and the evidence was conflicting.⁶ The data in Table 6 reveal relatively little difference between the median loads of beginning teachers and of those teachers who have had

⁵ Ralph F. Evans, "More Effective Use of Teaching Personnel in the Secondary School," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XVII (April, 1943), 372-75.

⁶ Ward L. Clubine, "Teacher Load in the Secondary Schools of Ontario," p. 188. Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, New York University, 1944.

experience. In this phase of the study the number of usable responses was reduced to 1,873 because a number of teachers failed to indicate their experience. The interquartile range appears to be smaller for more experienced personnel.

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

The stability of some two-field combinations suggests that much attention should be given to them in planning and making teaching assignments. Assignments involving more than two fields should be avoided, although smaller schools may find this difficult to do. In such cases attention to the more prevalent three-field combinations may be helpful. There is need for advance planning with respect to teaching assignments, and the co-operation of all schools, teacher-training institutions, and teachers is necessary if problems in this area are to be solved effectively.

Assignments in a single field appear generally to involve less total teaching load. With some exceptions, time requirements for out-of-class preparation also seem to be less in single-field assignments than in those involving two or more fields.⁷ Whenever possible, then, it would seem wise to restrict assignments to a single field or, at most, to two fields.

Variation of total loads was appar-

ent within a single school and among schools generally, both in schools of the same and of different sizes. Similarly, there was considerable variation of loads in a given subject field and among the several fields. Teaching experience did not appear as much of a factor, and the median load of inexperienced personnel was below that of all teachers. Neither was sex a significant factor. The influence of size of school on teaching loads is not clearly established although in larger schools the teaching loads appear to be slightly heavier than in smaller schools.

The range in total load in a single school suggests that administrators should be concerned more with teaching loads and their adjustment. In this connection, the factors included in the Douglass formula are important. Attention only to pupil-teacher ratio and to the number of classes taught daily does not provide a satisfactory basis on which to evaluate total teaching loads. The average pupil-teacher ratio of a school may be a poor index of the loads of individual teachers.

As the importance of efficiency in instruction and of personnel relationships becomes more generally recognized, increasing attention to the problems of teacher assignment may be expected, and will mark another step in the professionalization of teaching. It is hoped that school administrators will be in the vanguard of the persons who attack the problems of subject combinations and teaching loads.

⁷ For a detailed study of out-of-class preparation time requirements see Stephen Romine, "Estimating the Time Required for Out-of-Class Teaching Preparation," *American School Board Journal*, CXVII (November, 1948), 25-26.

INTERGROUP MATERIALS IN THE ENGLISH CLASSROOM

LEO SHAPIRO

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THE persistent problems of high-school pupils, as described by Dwight L. Burton (2), of the University of Minnesota High School, seemed to center in the following areas and in this order: (1) relations with parents, (2) relations with other adolescents, (3) problems of personality, (4) school problems, (5) relations with brothers and sisters, (6) miscellaneous.

The emphases here are extremely illuminating for persons who are working with children at the high-school level. The writer's experience with youngsters of high-school age in both classroom and guidance situations would suggest the following somewhat different structure: (1) relations with the adult world, having to do primarily with parents and teachers; (2) relations with other young people, as regards both patterns of friendship and patterns of antagonism; (3) problems concerning the self, which are often of two kinds: (a) what one might term the cognitive problem ("Who am I?" "What am I?") and (b) the critical problem, which may in turn take forms of approval ("I like what I am or what I stand for.") or disapproval ("I do not like what I am or what

I stand for."). From these concerns of high-school children, the teacher working at this level can inductively derive certain problem areas for development.

KNOW THE CHILD

Certainly one function of the teacher is to know the child and the child's world. This has been said often, but it must still be said a long time before we can be satisfied that the precept is being observed as much as it deserves to be. It means knowing the child and the child's world with respect to their psychological and sociological aspects. It means having an intimate and detailed understanding of the psychological motivations of children in general and of the individual child in particular. It means understanding community backgrounds and the family patterns of the child, so that the teacher is in a position to know as much as possible about what is going on in the child's mind before and after he is in the English class. These facts ought to be known functionally and not as a series of academic abstractions confined within the covers of a textbook in educational psychology. Such information

ought to have an experimental basis, so that the teacher has verified documentation to validate the various techniques and materials which he uses. Of course, the teacher ought to know the child and the child's world individually and warmly.

KNOW LITERARY MATERIALS

The second function belongs to the rather special province of the English teacher: knowing the literary materials which are useful in bringing out insights, illuminating both to the teacher and to the children, with respect to the problems we have just mentioned. We are in a fortunate position today regarding materials of this kind and no longer have to say, as we once did, "But there is nothing in the field." There is a good deal in the field, and much of it is good, indeed. There are helpful aids to acquaint us with the richness of these materials: Helen Trager's list (16); the publications of the American Council on Education, *Reading Ladders and Human Relations* (12) and *Literature for Human Understanding* (8). Teachers of English have found a wealth of suggestions in the *English Journal* before and since the intercultural issue for June, 1946. As they have read these kinds of materials, they have gradually been getting a more intelligent understanding of the historical, aesthetic, philosophic, sociological, and psychological aspects of the literary materials which constitute the essential fabric of their classroom work.

Two illustrations may perhaps be

pertinent in indicating some of the principal problems in regard to increasing our understanding of literary materials. Tindall's recent article, "The Sociological Best Seller" (15), tried to make the interesting point that many of the books which are being "used" by teachers concerned with good human relations—Laura Hobson's *Gentleman's Agreement*, Arthur Miller's *Focus*, Arthur Koestler's *Thieves in the Night*, Richard Wright's *Black Boy*—are "sociologically exciting" but "aesthetically depressing." The writer of this article felt that long after people have forgotten works like these, they will go back for truly profound interpretations of human relations to masterpieces like *Ulysses* and E. M. Forster's *A Passage to India*. The latter is probably a fairly safe point, though one wonders whether it is any more meaningful or constructive than the contentions of those persons who would reject *Beowulf* because it does not match up to the *Iliad*. What is not so valid is the old disjunction, which never seems to fail to get a response, between "sociological values" and "aesthetic values" in a literary work. Is it not high time that we looked for a more basic common denominator under which both sets of values could properly and legitimately be subsumed—*human values*, say, for want of a better term? Instead of working on different sides of the street, ought we not try to find one common path in which the aesthetic work fulfilling the highest qualities of aesthetic integrity is shown to be of deep and

enduring sociological and psychological significance?

This, however, is not so much the point I wish to stress. What is disturbing is that those persons who are presumably preoccupied with the aesthetic values of the work—so much so that they reject any and all other values as being comparatively trivial—say so little when they are called on to spell out what is involved in these aesthetic considerations. Thus, when the article in question attempts to be more specific, all we learn is that a novel should properly depend on "character and form." The writer tries a second time, and we learn then that a novel should properly give to its readers "character, symbol, vision, richness," and that its style consists of "eloquence, texture of sound, image, rhythm, intelligence."

A second illustration: Some time ago an English teacher wrote an interesting account entitled, "Teaching Tolerance through Literature" (17). Actually our objective ought not to be "tolerance" or the teaching of "tolerance"; we want to teach *children* to understand themselves, each other, and the world in which they live. This teacher goes out of her way to point up the value of a unit on the Negro in the segregated school system of which she is a member; there is no indication that she is aware of the educational research on the value of separate units and of the sociological and psychological research on the value of intercultural units in a segregated school system. There is no question

here of whether the teacher should agree with the findings of this research; the question is whether those persons who teach English should know about the research of colleagues in other fields, *when the research is directly relevant*.

The teacher goes on to praise the value of *The Merchant of Venice* as an intercultural medium and to regret its removal from the curriculum of her school because she feels that, in the hands of an informed teacher, it is the "most powerful literary weapon against anti-Semitic prejudice." In the hands of an informed teacher it might be—*might be*. However, the same teacher says about the killing of Queen Elizabeth's physician, Dr. Lopez, "I have often wondered if this incident did not inspire Shakespeare to write *The Merchant of Venice*." Is it not part of the responsibility of English teachers to be intimately informed about a work which they are convinced is a "powerful literary weapon"; to know the sociological and historical, as well as the aesthetic, aspects of the work; to know a rather substantial amount of the research done by E. E. Stoll (14) on the relationship of the Lopez incident and the Essex group and Christopher Marlow's *Jew of Malta* to Shakespeare's play? Ought they not to know that Hardin Craig was concerned about "the recognizable anti-Semitism of the whole picture" (3: 296); or that William Allan Neilson felt that there was "no doubt that Shakespeare intentionally endowed Shylock with traits which have

fostered the traditional antipathy" to his group (11: 116); or that Hazelton Spencer believed that "secondary schools have wisely removed the play from the curriculum" because he could not see how "a Jew can read *The Merchant of Venice* without pain and indignation" (13: 239-40)? It is not so much a question of using or not using the play; but if we want to use this material, or any other literary material, for that matter, let us have a firm grounding in all that is involved in its use.

KNOW USEFUL TECHNIQUES

Furthermore, all English teachers should become increasingly familiar with the techniques which are useful for bringing out the elements in literary works that are of value in increasing human sensitivity. More and more teachers are using sociometry and learning of its considerable relevancy to the English classroom; a convenient aid here is the pamphlet of the American Council on Education on *Sociometry in Group Relations* (7). Many teachers have found great value in "using" role-playing techniques, sociodrama, general semantics, group dynamics, and the like. Teachers have also received much help from diary materials giving detailed accounts of the child's emotional experiences over a given period of time. Happily more and more teachers are submitting their teaching methods to that crucial phase which so many of us tend to overlook, evaluation—something more objective than a pious

hope that a poem is "going over" because one child smiled approvingly when it was being read and another child came up to speak to the teacher about it after class. Teachers will gain assistance from the interesting work on evaluation that has been done by Walter Loban (9) and Chester Harris (5).

KNOW THE OPERATION OF THE SELF

Finally, English teachers—like all other teachers—should know how the "self" is operating in these matters. Browning's "My Last Duchess" (a poem which has remained with me since I first encountered it, as a boy, in the junior high school English curriculum and which, I understand, has remained in the junior high school curriculum) tells us something of how a person may think he is talking about someone else when he is actually speaking about himself by implication all the time. It ties in with other literary materials, like Browning's "Andrea del Sarto" or Robert Frost's "The Death of the Hired Man" or Emerson's statement, "What you are speaks so loud I cannot hear what you say." We must realize that both teachers and pupils say a great deal about themselves as they project themselves through the characters in a literary work; this is one great value of literary works in the field of human relations. How much sensitive teachers have done with short stories like Sara Haardt's "Little White Girl" (10: 184-93) or Shirley Jackson's "After You, My Dear Alphonse"

(10: 206-9) or Dorothy Parker's "Arrangement in Black and White" (10: 213-17) or with other valuable material (6, 1, 4). But the teacher will need a sensitive understanding of the child and of himself.

TOTAL UNDERSTANDING

In sum, we must be child-conscious and know the child and the child's world in the most intimate, sensitive, informed way. We must be art-conscious and know the art of our field—its literary masterpieces as well as the devices for making these masterpieces come alive in terms of a child's real needs. We must be science-conscious and know the scientific techniques whereby we can objectify the concepts and materials that we are using and validate our techniques so that they "make sense" to others besides ourselves. Finally, we must be self-conscious, so that we will be acutely aware of our *self* and of what truly motivates us as we work with literature and human relations.

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4. GASSNER, JOHN. *Human Relations in the Theatre*. New York: Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 1949.
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9. LOBAN, WALTER. "Evaluating Growth in the Study of Literature," *English Journal*, XXXVI (June, 1948), 277-83.
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12. *Reading Ladders for Human Relations*. By the STAFF OF INTERGROUP EDUCATION IN CO-OPERATING SCHOOLS. Work in Progress Series. Washington: American Council on Education, 1939 (revised).
13. SPENCER, HAZELTON. *The Art and Life of William Shakespeare*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., Inc., 1940.
14. STOLL, E. E. *Shakespeare Studies*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1927.
15. TINDALL, WILLIAM YORK. "The Sociological Best Seller," *English Journal*, XXXVI (November, 1947), 447-54.
16. TRAGER, HELEN. "Intercultural Books for Children," *Childhood Education*, XXII (November, 1945), 138-45.
17. WEEKS, RUTH MARY. "Teaching Tolerance through Literature," *English Journal*, XXXV (October, 1946), 425-32.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON HIGHER EDUCATION¹

NORMAN BURNS

University of Chicago

MANNING M. PATTILLO, JR.

North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools



THIS list of references is a selection from material on higher education that has come to the attention of the compilers between July 1, 1948, and June 30, 1949. Institutional histories, annual reports, yearbooks, and proceedings of associations regularly devoted to the problems of colleges and universities have not been included.

In the judgment of the compilers, the literature on higher education is undergoing a major change in emphasis. Both the quality and the quantity of factual studies appear to be declining, while increasing attention is being given to the direct treatment of broad matters of educational purpose and policy. The problem of the relationship of higher institutions to government, the educational issues arising from the growing diversity of conceptions of democracy, the dilemmas caused by the impact of world move-

ments on academic freedom and objectivity, the need for a greater synthesis of knowledge in the midst of increasing specialization, and the sharpening conflicts among different points of view concerning the purposes of colleges and universities are supplying the themes of more and more current publications in the field of higher education. There has been a corresponding decrease in reports of statistical and other descriptive studies of particular aspects of programs in operation. Furthermore, the tide of criticism of higher institutions seems to be rising. Perhaps the most common charge made against colleges and universities is that they are failing to clarify the moral principles on which men must act if a humane culture is to survive.

This change in emphasis has necessarily affected the choice of items for inclusion in the present list. The compilers have intended that their selection should be comprehensive both in the subject matter of the references and in the methods employed in the treatment of the subject matter. They have tried to select from the large

¹ See also Item 518 (Brouwer) and Item 544 (Williamson) in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1949, number of the *School Review* and Item 556 (Bogue) in the October, 1949, number of the same journal; and Item 342 (Livingstone) and Item 356 (Hallstein) in the May-June, 1949, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

amount of published material those items that they believe will be most helpful to informed practitioners in the field of higher education. It has not been possible, of course, to include all titles that might be worthy of attention.

662. BECKER, ARTHUR PETER. "To Professionalize Teaching," *Journal of Higher Education*, XX (February, 1949), 88-94.

An economist proposes measures to raise the status of college and university teachers. Urges the organization of a unified professional association for lobbying and regulatory purposes. Assumes that salaries are the fundamental determinant of status.

663. BELL, BERNARD IDDINGS. *Crisis in Education: A Challenge to American Complacency*. New York: Whittlesey House, 1949. Pp. x+238.

Presents a caustic attack on contemporary education, charging that it perpetuates existing evils, especially "cultural childishness." A considerable portion of the book deals with colleges and universities. The validity of the thesis hinges on the author's assertions about the relationship of experience and education.

664. BELOFF, MAX. "American Universities: Some Impressions and Reflections," *Universities Quarterly* (London, England), III (February, 1949), 571-80.

A British observer discusses American higher educational practices and presuppositions and summarizes the strengths and weaknesses of our institutions as he sees them. He admires American enthusiasm and the public-service aspect of our state universities but regrets the superficiality, the emphasis on academic machinery, the "insularity" of American scholarship, the lack of constructive administrative leadership (except for Hutchins), and the intellectual immaturity of students.

665. BOOKMAN, GLADYS. "Freshman Orientation Techniques in Colleges and Universities," *Occupations*, XXVII (December, 1948), 163-66.

Presents results of a study of the orientation programs of 143 institutions. On the basis of a comparison of present practices with methods recommended in educational literature, the author outlines eleven ways in which the orientation of Freshmen might be improved.

666. BROWNELL, BAKER. "Technology and the Human Limit," *Journal of Higher Education*, XX (March, 1949), 121-28, 168.

Examines the concept of community in relation to education, suggesting ideas that have an important bearing on college and university policy. Sees the small, unspecialized social group as indispensable to human personality. Discusses the community college in the light of this idea.

667. BRUMBAUGH, A. J. (editor). *American Universities and Colleges*. Washington: American Council on Education, 1948 (fifth edition). Pp. xvi+1054.

The most complete single volume of information about universities and four-year colleges in the United States, Alaska, Puerto Rico, and Hawaii. Contains descriptions of 820 institutions, together with sections on education in the United States, the American college, the American university, professional education, the foreign student in the United States, accreditation, academic costume, and the classification of institutions in this country.

668. BRUNNER, EDMUND DES. "The University and Society," *Teachers College Record*, L (November, 1948), 77-82.

An address given at the opening exercises of the academic year of Columbia University. Explains the principles of democracy, as the author sees them, and contends that the university has an obligation "to help make democracy work." Asserts that the social studies have a special role to play in this task but that they have been handicapped by lack of public recognition.

669. BURNS, NORMAN, and RUSSEL, JOHN H. "The Financial Status of Member Colleges and Universities of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools—A Preliminary Report," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XXIII (October, 1948), 183-95. Presents in tabular form, with explanation, the revised finance norms of the North Central Association, based on the 1946-47 reports of 325 institutions. The following criteria of excellence are considered: educational and general income per student, educational and general expenditures per student, debt per student, median instructional salary, maximum instructional salary, expenditures for library books, and expenditures for library salaries. Comparisons are made with data for previous years.

670. CARMICHAEL, PETER A. "Pedagogical Fabrications," *Journal of Higher Education*, XX (April, 1949), 201-4. Although purporting to be a review of *General Education in the Humanities*, by Harold Dunkel, this article is, in fact, a critical examination of certain assumptions currently accepted in American higher education, specifically assumptions regarding the proper place of the humanities. Suggests greater attention to fundamental philosophic problems and to the writers who have dealt expertly with such problems, as the best means for raising the level of education.

671. CHAMBERS, M. M. "Periodicals Covering Foreign Universities," *School and Society*, LXVIII (November 6, 1948), 321-23. Presents commentary on journals dealing with higher education in other countries. Gives helpful information on about thirty periodicals, many of which have not heretofore been widely read in America.

672. CHAMBERS, M. M. "Shall Colleges Operate Businesses?" *College and University Business*, VI (March, 1949), 30. Summarizes the legal principles underlying the tax exemption of enterprises operated by nonprofit educational institutions. Does not cite cases.

673. DE KIEWIET, C. W. "Academic Freedom Today," *Educational Record*, XXIX (October, 1948), 400-409. Analyzes the problem of communism in American higher education. The author is "convinced that active communism should be strongly resisted" and that a responsible tribunal should be established to try cases in which disloyalty is charged. Stresses the belief that academic freedom obligates educators to be genuine intellectuals, that is, clarifiers of important ideas.

674. DERBIGNY, I. A. "Labor Unionism in American Colleges," *School and Society*, LXIX (March 5, 1949), 172-74. Reports the results of a questionnaire study of the extent and activities of labor unions for teaching and nonteaching personnel in higher institutions. Of the 1,092 institutions from which replies were received, 24 had faculty locals and 11 had salaried workers' unions. The study showed that unionization in higher education is in its beginning stage, that it has spread most rapidly among institutions which are outgrowths of public-school systems, and that it has not resulted in serious conflicts within institutions.

675. DUCASSE, C. J. "Graduate Preparation for Teaching," *Journal of Higher Education*, XIX (December, 1948), 443-47, 488. The author, dean of the Graduate School of Brown University, suggests that graduate programs be improved by the addition of studies that would give the prospective teacher a broader view of the relation of his subject to knowledge in general. Ducasse believes that this can be accomplished through the study of selected problems in philosophy, as a supplement to the usual graduate major.

676. EDWARD W. HAZEN FOUNDATION AND THE COMMITTEE ON RELIGION AND EDUCATION OF THE AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION. *College Reading and Re-*

ligion. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1948. Pp. xii+346.

Presents results of a survey of the religious content of reading materials most commonly used in basic courses in liberal arts colleges. The purpose of the study was to identify cases of silent treatment, hostility to religion, sectarian bias (both religious and antireligious), and confused interpretations of religion.

677. **ERSKINE, JOHN.** "The Cost of the Sabine Farm," *Journal of Higher Education*, XIX (November, 1948), 387-93, 440-41.

Through an essay on Horace and his relation to Maecenas, Erskine raises a fundamental question of general education—the moral effect produced by the materials employed in teaching.

678. **EVANS, HOWARD R.** "The Prediction of Enrolment in a Municipal University," *Journal of Higher Education*, XIX (October, 1948), 369-71.

Presents a statistical analysis of the factors thought to affect the enrolment of a municipal institution. The data relate to the following considerations: total population of the city, school population of the city, number of high-school graduates in the city, trend in veteran enrolment, and trend in percentage of high-school graduates who attend college.

679. **FARRINGTON, BENJAMIN.** "Classics and the Reform of the Faculty of Arts," *Journal of Education* (London), LXXX (August, 1948), 441-42.

Proposes four comprehensive questions the answers to which can bring unity into the human studies of the university: How did men learn to live? How did men come to be where they now are on the earth's surface? How did men learn to live together? How did men come to hold the opinions they now hold on these questions?

680. **FEISS, CARL.** "Planning Problems of Colleges and Universities," *The American School and University*, 1948, pp. 32-37. New York: American School Publishing Corporation, 1948.

An architect discusses some of the problems faced in planning a college or university physical plant. Emphasis placed on the relation between buildings, on the one hand, and educational and emotional considerations, on the other. Deals with the procedures, the flexibility, the factor of location, the personnel, and the financing involved in a master plan.

681. *Ferment in Education: The Problems, Responsibilities, and Opportunities of Universities in This Time.* Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Press, 1948. Pp. 224.

A collection of addresses delivered on the occasion of George D. Stoddard's inauguration as president of the University of Illinois. The following captions, under which the addresses are classified, suggest the scope of the symposium: "The Sobering Problems of Education," "The Race between Education and Catastrophe," "Challenge to the Health Sciences," and "Educational Responsibilities of the University of Illinois." Included among the contributors in addition to Stoddard, are Robert M. Hutchins, Archibald MacLeish, James B. Conant, and A. J. Carlson.

682. **FIREBAUGH, JOSEPH J.** "Reading and General Education," *School and Society*, LXIX (January 29, 1949), 74-77.

Evaluates the reading ability of most college undergraduates as inadequate for the completion of a program of general education. Proposes that reading for comprehension be made a primary requirement in all college courses. Clarifies the distinction between reading for information and reading for understanding.

683. **FRIEDERICH, W. P.** "On Federal Aid and Co-ordination," *Journal of Higher Education*, XX (February, 1949), 95-99, 112-13.

Recommends federal aid for universities, accompanied by federal supervision and intervention. Favors co-ordination of American universities by a Secretary of Education and a small executive board of university presidents, chosen by a legislative body of not more than seventy-two

representatives of selected universities. The author takes the position that federal aid would enable higher institutions to curtail enrolments and accept only the most promising students.

684. GILL, GLADYS H. "Supervision of Student Activity Funds," *College and University Business*, VI (April, 1949), 8-9. Presents a detailed description of the student-fund audit system that has been in use at Ohio University for twelve years. The system was designed to assure sound business methods in the operation of student organizations. Shows forms used in the system.

685. GUSTAVSON, R. G. "Joint Committee on Accreditation," *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, XXXV (March, 1949), 50-55. Reviews the history of the accrediting movement, with emphasis on the weaknesses that have been attributed to accrediting agencies. Outlines a proposal for the improvement of accrediting in this country.

686. HAMILTON, EDWARD W. "Teaching Literature as Art," *Journal of Higher Education*, XIX (October, 1948), 344-49, 385-86. Suggests a reinterpretation of the purpose of English courses to give the general student skill in distinguishing the first-rate from the mediocre in literature. Considers specific methods for accomplishing this end.

687. HARE, MICHAEL M. "Planning the College Union," *The American School and University*, 1948, pp. 161-66. New York: American School Publishing Corporation, 1948. The architect of the Wisconsin Union offers advice to institutions planning a college union. Comments on function, location, control, and necessary facilities of a union. Cites the experience of several institutions that have pioneered in this field.

688. HOLLINSHEAD, BYRON S. "Better Teachers for Liberal Arts Colleges," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XXIII (April, 1949), 384-90. Discusses the theory of the liberal arts college and the kind of teachers required in the light of this theory. Holds that the two fundamental issues in American higher education are British college ideal versus German university idea and Jeffersonianism versus Jacksonianism. Suggests that the liberal arts college should incline toward the first position in each issue.

689. HOLLIS, ERNEST V., and GOLDSBOROUGH, J. HAROLD. "College and University Building Needs," *The American School and University*, 1948, pp. 86-94. New York: American School Publishing Corporation, 1948. Presents results of a study of space needs in American higher education. The authors predict the need for 78 per cent more space by 1950 to accommodate the anticipated enrolment. Article presents detailed data for 1,386 institutions.

690. HOLY, T. C., and THOMPSON, RONALD B. "Utilization of College and University Buildings," *The American School and University*, 1948, pp. 41-45. New York: American School Publishing Corporation, 1948. Tells how Ohio State University has met the housing emergency created by an expanded enrolment after the war. Better utilization of classroom and laboratory space was effected by heavier scheduling of classes in the afternoon and on Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday; by assembly of information about each room; by careful assignment of space on a university-wide basis; and by the sharing of offices.

691. HUGHES, J. M. "Organizing a Teacher-Education Program in a University," *Journal of Higher Education*, XX (January, 1949), 37-40, 58. An account of the reorganization of teacher preparation at Northwestern University. Asserts that the training of teachers should be a function of the entire university rather than of an autonomous department or school of education. Reports success with

joint appointments between the School of Education and other divisions of the University.

692. HUTCHINS, ROBERT M. "Education and Democracy," *School and Society*, LXIX (June 18, 1949), 425-28.
Attacks the commonly held view that liberal education is undemocratic. Argues that liberal education is the education suitable for rulers and should, therefore, be universal in a democratic society, that is, a society in which everyone is a ruler. The task of educators is to devise means for giving all our people the liberal education they need as preparation for ruling.

693. KAISER, BOYNTON S. "Colleges Have Much To Learn about Dealing with Unions," *College and University Business*, VI (March, 1949), 3-5.
Introduces college administrators to the problem of institution-union relations. Describes in simple terms the kind of situation that develops when employees organize and union representatives deal directly with college officers. Suggests methods of successful negotiation.

694. KENISTON, HAYWARD. "The Graduate School: Its Place in American Intellectual Life," *Universities Quarterly* (London, England), III (November, 1948), 471-79.
Presents a general description of graduate schools in the United States. Includes sections on history and aims, the value and limitations of scientific method, repercussions on undergraduate instruction, and problems faced in graduate education.

695. KILHAM, WALTER H., JR. "Planning the Princeton Library," *Journal of Higher Education*, XIX (December, 1948), 448-52, 489.
One of the architects of the new library building at Princeton University describes the manner in which architects, trustees, administrative officers, and faculty members all co-operated in the planning of the building.

696. KYKENDALL, DEAN W. "The Disappearing Teachers College," *School and Society*, LXIX (May 14, 1949), 351-53.
Reviews the widespread changes that have taken place in the functions and titles of state-controlled teacher-training institutions since the time of the two-year normal school. Discusses the public attitude toward the title "teachers' college" and the effect of this attitude on financial support.

697. LINDSTROM, JOHN. "When We Design with Today's Materials," *College and University Business*, VI (April, 1949), 16-17.
Describes the greatly improved materials now available for college buildings. Discusses materials for exterior walls, windows, interior-wall surfaces, floors, ceilings, and artificial illumination.

698. LINTON, CLARENCE. "Counseling Students from Overseas," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, VIII (Autumn, 1948), 501-21.
Considers scope of foreign-student advising in American colleges and universities, pertinent federal legislation, functions of counselors, and qualifications needed for success in this kind of service.

699. McGLOTHLIN, W. J. "Internships in Southern Graduate Programs," *Journal of Higher Education*, XX (February, 1949), 83-87, 114.
Description of co-operation between southern universities and public agencies in arranging internships for graduate students. Outlines safeguards needed to assure the educational quality of such experience. Gives particular attention to the efforts of the Tennessee Valley Authority, with which the author is connected.

700. MCGRATH, EARL J. "The Goals of Higher Education," *Journal of Higher Education*, XX (April, 1949), 171-80.
Lists the purposes of higher education as vocational training, community service, research and preparation for research, and the liberal education of youth for life in a democracy. Asserts that the first two pur-

poses are being carried out successfully. Pleads for an improvement of programs for the accomplishment of the third and fourth purposes. Stresses the need for greater attention to the liberal arts if our civilization is to survive.

701. MILLETT, FRED B. "Humanistic Education," *American Association of University Professors Bulletin*, XXXIV (Autumn, 1948), 465-76.

Explains why philosophical, religious, and aesthetic values are the unifying element in liberal education. Discusses the limitations of the scientific method and suggests the way in which the social and natural sciences may be made humanistic.

702. MILLHAUSER, MILTON. "The Universal English Program at the University of Bridgeport," *School and Society*, LXVIII (September 11, 1948), 174-76.

Reports the method and results of a co-ordinated effort to improve the quality of college students' writing. The program is based on the unwillingness of any instructor in any course, regardless of department, to accept a badly written paper from any student. This regulation is supplemented by the provision of a writing clinic for students who lack the requisite skill.

703. MINER, ROBERT J. "The Therapeutic Handling of Discipline," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, VIII (Autumn, 1948), 550-61.

The director of student affairs, Miami University, urges counseling rather than punishment as the educational method of maintaining discipline. Asserts that punishment is not necessary for exemplary purposes.

704. MOEHLMAN, ARTHUR B. "Porter Sargent: A Portrait," *Journal of Higher Education*, XX (April, 1949), 181-87, 225.

Presents a brief biography of one of America's least tactful critics of "rigid institutionalists and organizationalists" in education. Though closely identified with independent schools at the elementary and secondary level, Sargent has given increasing attention to higher education in recent years.

705. MURRAY, JOHN. "Halls of Residence in Universities," *Universities Quarterly* (London, England), III (February, 1949), 563-70.

Presents a statement of principles for the planning of residence halls as centers of moral and social training. Considers important matters of building arrangement, supervision, personnel, and maintenance of a balanced student group in each hall.

706. NEWBURN, H. K. "The Financing of Public Higher Education in the United States," *Educational Record*, XXX (January, 1949), 23-32.

Attempts to predict enrolments in publicly controlled higher institutions and to estimate the cost of the program. Forecasts greatly increased annual budget, 80-90 per cent of which will be met from public funds. Compares state and federal governments as sources of support.

707. NIMKOFF, MEYER F., and WOOD, ARTHUR L. "Women's Place Academically," *Journal of Higher Education*, XX (January, 1949), 28-36.

Presents results of a study of positions held by women in fifty-six women's colleges. The data show that there has been an increase in the percentages of women trustees and of women holders of full and associate professorships, but that there has not been an increase in percentages of women presidents, women deans, or women faculty members.

708. OUTLER, ALBERT C. "Colleges, Faculties, and Religion," *Educational Record*, XXX (January, 1949), 45-60.

Summarizes some of the findings from recent studies of religion in higher education. Analyzes the significance of these findings for educational policy. Describes the outcomes of an experimental program of faculty consultations on religion at fifty-three institutions throughout the United States.

709. PROBST, GEORGE E. "Liberal Education and Social-Science Class Discussion," *School Review*, LVII (March, 1949), 158-64. Outlines four concepts of social-science teaching, describes the conduct of social sciences in his own institution (the College of the University of Chicago), discusses the qualities of a good teacher, and offers suggestions for the organization of class discussion around fundamental questions.

710. PUNDT, ALFRED C. "Re-educating the New Germany," *Journal of Higher Education*, XIX (October, 1948), 350-60. A former educational officer of the Military Government in Bavaria describes the efforts, largely unsuccessful, to reorganize German schools and higher institutions after the war. Reports that the victors' policy favored education that was democratic, secular, and nonclassical. Since the majority of educators in Germany were either National Socialists, churchmen, or classicists, this policy was unenforceable, the author states.

711. RABE, W. F. "The Administrator's Source of Power in the American University," *College and University*, XXIV (October, 1948), 12-21. Traces the history of administrative organization in Harvard University, Yale University, the University of Michigan, Ohio State University, Stanford University, and the University of Chicago. Concludes that the board of control, representing society, has been the source of the administrator's power in American higher education from Colonial times, as contrasted with the European pattern of administrative responsibility to the faculty.

712. REID, LOREN D. "How To Improve Classroom Lectures," *American Association of University Professor's Bulletin*, XXXIV (Autumn, 1948), 576-84. Makes some suggestions for improving the presentation of subject matter. The following points are considered: the lecturer's personality, the use of examples, delivery, forms of presentation, and the stimulation of student comments.

713. REID, LOUIS ARNAUD. "The Nature and Justification of an 'Arts' Education," *Universities Quarterly* (London, England), III (November, 1948), 497-502. Presents a philosophical treatment of general education, made necessary, the author asserts, by the inclination of democratic and utilitarian man to regard humane and individual insights as luxuries. Yet such insights, the contribution of general education, form the basis of human freedom and must not be displaced by a detached or objective view of man in which the person becomes only a concept or an abstract unit. Reid believes that the wide acceptance of the latter view is the greatest danger in the world today.

714. ROGERS, CARL R. "Some Implications of Client-centered Counseling for College Personnel Work," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, VIII (Autumn, 1948), 540-49. An article of great import, offering tentative answers to the following questions: "Where is knowledge of the student integrated as a basis of action?" "Can the basic attitudes which appear to be effective in individual counseling of a client-centered sort be applied to work with groups of students, to work in committees, to the teaching of classes, to the administration of student personnel staff groups?"

715. SCOTT, H. A. "Graduate Instruction in Physical Education," *Teachers College Record*, L (January, 1949), 247-57. Discusses the increased demand for graduate work in physical education, the conclusions of several conferences on the physical-education curriculum, the results that should be secured by graduate programs in this field, and the distinctions that ought to exist between the Master's and the Doctor's degree. Warns against the establishment of professional programs in physical education in institutions which are not prepared to give adequate support to the work.

716. SIMPSON, GEORGE. "Bureaucracy, Standardization, and Liberal Arts," *Journal of Higher Education*, XX (March, 1949), 129-36, 169.
Describes the effect of mass education on personality. "While we proclaim our allegiance to education for given social values, the very organizational form in which we try to convey these values structures the personality in the opposite direction." Contends that large classes and mechanical procedures in higher education are undermining democracy.

717. SMITH, T. V. "Imagination and Education: The Axiological Orientation of Higher Education," *Journal of Higher Education*, XIX (October, 1948), 331-43.
A collection of thoughts built around the theme that higher education should be concerned with the impossible, following an elementary education given to the practical and a secondary education devoted to the possible. By the "impossible" is meant the "vast and majestic realm" of the imagination, as found in poetry, theology, and philosophy.

718. SPARLING, EDWARD J. "Minority Groups in Our Schools," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, VIII (Autumn, 1948), 460-72.
Recounts the experience of Roosevelt College in dealing with the problems of certain minority groups. Three problems are dealt with specifically: discrimination and undemocratic administrative control, inequality of achievement, and restricted opportunity in job placement.

719. STELLWAGEN, H. P. "Higher Education Can Be Hazardous," *College and University Business*, VI (March, 1949), 23-25.
Cites recent court decisions showing a marked tendency toward greater liability on the part of colleges and universities for the wrong acts or negligence of their employees. Describes the types of insurance that can protect institutions against losses arising from this liability.

720. TAYLOR, HAROLD. "Human Nature and Education," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, VIII (Autumn, 1948), 530-39.
Examines present-day college education in the light of a theory of human nature. Recommends more attention to individual students and less concern with standardization through general education. The position is taken that the problems of individual students should be the primary criterion for the selection of learning experiences.

721. TAYLOR, HUGH S. "Science, Education and Human Values," *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, XXXV (March, 1949), 25-32.
Focuses attention on the failure of colleges and universities to equip their students to use scientific knowledge in ethically defensible ways. Shows that the major problems of today lie beyond the possibility of scientific solution. Suggests a more careful definition of the limitations of science and a greater awareness of the human element in scientific research.

722. TODD, ROBERT E., JR. "Biology in a Program of General Education," *Journal of Higher Education*, XX (February, 1949), 71-76, 113.
Presents a description of the semester course in biological science for Freshmen at Colgate University. Discusses the criteria employed in selecting the problems around which the work is organized.

723. TREVELYAN, O. M. "The Mission of the Universities," *Universities Quarterly* (London, England), III (November, 1948), 480-85.
Surveys the need for expansion of university student bodies and facilities in Great Britain. Sees the universities as becoming more and more crucial in the presentation and improvement of English culture, as taxation destroys the leisure of the upper and professional classes. Emphasizes the necessity of maintaining quality and, at the same time, increasing the availability of higher education.

724. WALTERS, RAYMOND. "Statistics of Attendance in American Universities and Colleges, 1948," *School and Society*, LXVIII (December 18, 1948), 419-30. Presents enrolment and faculty data in tabular form for 726 accredited institutions. Comments on enrolments in recent years and on the prospects for the near future. Analyzes enrolment on a geographic basis and by type of institution.

725. WEBSTER, T. B. L. "Classics in the Universities," *Universities Quarterly* (London, England), III (November, 1948), 486-91. Defines the place of the classics in universities, against the background of the remarkable revival of Greek in English secondary schools during the past five years. Suggests the services that classical departments may render to the community at large and to other departments within the university. Examines some of the problems of classical instruction, for example, the matter of the time required for mastery of classical languages and the question of combining Greek or Latin with other subjects in developing a major.

726. WILLIAMSON, E. G. "Supervision of Counseling Services," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, VIII (Autumn, 1948), 297-311. Discusses major objectives and methods of counseling supervision. The methods included are consultations, case reading, case conferences, and evaluation by an outsider. Outlines six criteria for the evaluation of counseling.

727. WOODWARD, JULIAN L. "The Use of Public Opinion and Market Research Techniques in Education," *Educational Record*, XXX (April, 1949), 186-196. Discusses the sampling and interview technique as an administrative tool, with special reference to enrolment and public-relations problems.

728. WRENN, C. GILBERT. "The Greatest Tragedy in College Personnel Work," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, VIII (Autumn, 1948), 412-29. Identifies the following areas of minor weakness in college personnel work: low job and training standards, initiation and direction of program from above, and poor co-ordination of program. Believes the major tragedy is isolation of program from significant influences in the life of the student, namely, the home, secondary schools, the college classroom, and spiritual resources.

729. WRISTON, HENRY M. "Fire Bell in the Night," *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, XXXV (May, 1949), 234-46. Undertakes to explain the drift of many intellectuals away from traditional American social and economic doctrines. The central thought is that the uncertain economic status and the declining social prestige of the scholar in contemporary life have weakened his faith in private enterprise and have inclined him to look to the state for support. Cites the indifference of Italian intellectuals to the destruction of freedom in their country as a European illustration of the seriousness of public neglect of the status of scholars.

730. ZOOK, GEORGE F. "The International University Conference at Utrecht," *Educational Record*, XXIX (October, 1948), 341-52. Presents a brief summary of the work of the Utrecht Conference called by the director-general of UNESCO. Contains quotations from speeches and resolutions representing international views on higher education. Discusses the proposal for a permanent international organization of universities.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

WILLARD B. SPALDING and JOHN R. MONTAGUE, M.D., *Alcohol and Human Affairs: With an Appendix on Tobacco and Narcotics*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1949. Pp. vi+248. \$1.64.

Secondary schools generally have failed to come to grips with the many real and vital problems to be faced in the everyday decisions, adjustments, and behavior of young people and adults. Typically the schools continue to ignore or, at best, to handle circumstantially (sometimes superficially and too frequently without due regard for scientific fact) problems relating to politics, prejudice, labor and management, sex, socialized medicine, liquor, etc. The result has been a school that has little or no positive effect on the behavior of youth and adults in these areas. Two obvious reasons why schools have scratched lightly in these areas are to be found in the invested interests of certain pressure groups and in the fact that little suitable high-school material relating to major and current problems has been written in a scientific and unbiased style which lends itself to effective classroom use in the teaching-learning process.

Although every state has incorporated some legislation requiring instruction about alcohol, the teaching too frequently remains incidental, haphazard, and often not in accordance with known, scientific fact. A valuable aid to more effective instruction concerning the use and effects of alcohol has become available with the publication of *Alcohol and Human Affairs* by Spalding and Montague. In this textbook an experienced educator has joined with a medical authority

on alcoholism to produce a readable and scientific treatment of the serious, complex, and many-sided problem of drink in our society.

The style of writing and the thinking in the book follow the research pattern of a problem-solving approach. The authors merely present all the facts in a highly objective manner. Being mindful that liquor and drink is only "America's Number 4 public health problem," they aim to give the pupil insight and practice in a problem-solving technique that will help him solve other problems which he will inevitably face as a citizen.

In nine chapters the authors discuss the background of the liquor problem, giving the history of alcohol and the early customs of drinking, the manufacture of alcohol, the implications of alcohol as a major industry, the effect of alcohol on the body, the effect of alcohol on society, the laws that have been set up in regard to drinking, the views of various religious sects on the use of alcohol, what help can be given to alcoholics, and what individuals can do about the problem of drink today.

This volume presents many data and statistics in regard to every aspect of the drinking problem, without any attempt to bend any section of the data in the direction of a particular point of view, whether it be that of the manufacturer who is concerned with sales, the moderate user of liquor, or the total abstainer. In spite of the fact that it is the temperance point of view that has usually spearheaded most of the state legislation in regard to alcohol education, the authors have preserved a safe and sane, as well as a sci-

tific, outlook, without attempting to preach an abstinence program. This publication may not do all that the most ardent temperance followers would wish, but it is a basic volume on which they may structure a desirable pattern of individual behavior. In presenting the book, the authors have on no point sacrificed scientific facts for sales.

Writing complex and scientific material down to the high-school level invariably entails the risk of oversimplifying the problem and of treating it somewhat superficially. The authors have generally succeeded in overcoming this difficulty. One lapse is to be found in the discussion, "Shall I Drink?" The authors state that, if drinking is completely ruled out for an individual by personal conviction or religious belief, he is then in the fortunate position of having no personal problem. Obviously, behavior has other determinants, and mere intellectual conviction or religious affiliation does not always dismiss or solve the drinking problem. Actually, these factors may complicate the drinking problem for certain individuals.

The authors' approach, always intellectual and scientific, avoids building attitudes which may more effectively predispose toward desirable behavior, if society as a whole could agree on what desirable behavior in regard to drink is. By intent, rather than by accident, the authors do not attempt a definition of desirable behavior. They do not claim that total abstinence is the wisest behavior, nor do they state that moderate drinking is acceptable behavior. Their basic procedure is to present all the facts to enable the readers to select, through an intellectual process, what for them is reasonable behavior in regard to liquor. Many persons will argue that the maturity level of adolescents is not sufficient to insure the best choices, even when aided by the storehouse of statistics and facts presented by the authors.

The reading-difficulty level of this volume will probably limit its use to the upper grades of the high school. However, teachers in the elementary school will find it an excellent source of valuable and accurate information

for presentation at the lower-grade levels. The format and composition of the book reflect careful and effective artistry. The Index is detailed and provides a convenient aid to use.

Considering the paucity of scientific writing on alcohol available at the high-school level and the universality and acuteness of the educational problem in this area of teaching, *Alcohol and Human Affairs* fills a dire need. The school board which hesitates to approve this textbook for use in the schools will be guilty of serious evasion of its responsibility and, perhaps, an even more serious bias in its thinking. Those persons who have faith in bibliotherapy may also find this book a valuable item to pass along to their adult friends whose drinking habits or opinions they would like to modify.

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PERCIVAL M. SYMONDS, *The Dynamics of Parent-Child Relationships*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949. Pp. xiv+198. \$3.50.

In his new book, *The Dynamics of Parent-Child Relationships*, Symonds declares:

If one wishes to select a good student for school or college, . . . a good husband or wife, a good leader for an enterprise, he can do no better than to inquire into the nature of the individual's family and his relations with his parents as a child [p. 126].

Although the book "is intended for use by counselors and psychotherapists who work in child guidance and in parent education and psychotherapy" (p. v), it is fairly obvious that the field it covers should be of interest to educators. The author does, indeed, draw analogies between classroom behavior of children under teachers having certain personalities and behavior of children who have parents of similar types. Furthermore, a major chapter specifically discusses the field of parent education per se, and also vis-à-vis psychotherapy.

The major portion of the book is devoted to those parent-child relationships whose influences upon the child's personality are not salutary, such as parental rejection, overindulgence, overprotection, overauthority and overstrictness, ambition, and overdependence. The discussion of these relationships includes a description of the parental attitude and its manifestations in behavior and an explanation of the effects of these attitudes upon the child's behavior and personality development.

The essential distinction between unfavorable parental influences and good parent-child relations, according to this author, is that, in the former, treatment of the child is governed by his parents' need for an object of domination or for release of hostility, instead of by the needs of the growing child. Since these needs are, to a large extent, unconscious, the parent will rationalize their expression in terms of consideration for the child. It is important to note, however, that the emotional needs of well-adjusted parents are also met in part by their children.

Symonds says that the essence of parent-child relations lies more in how a parent feels than in what a parent does. Yet the parent's feelings, from the viewpoint of the infant, are more likely to be conveyed by what the parent does—singing, feeding, lifting carefully, etc. Symonds regards the area of doing, if the feeling is proper, as the area within which parent education is most helpful, although he believes that, in such cases, considerable deviation from recommended practices will not lead to unfavorable development of the personality. Where the feeling is such that there is no "true love," then psychotherapy must be used.

The chapter on good parent-child relationships, like the other chapters, lists certain requisites of these relationships, based on psychoanalytic theory and certain other schools of dynamic theory and practice. But greater emphasis might well have been given to a different kind of theory; such a theory as is implied in Symond's recognition of the fact that a "set of ten commandments" would at

least be a convenience for the parents. These commandments do not exist, but theories from which one can draw specific actions for specific situations do exist. Symonds mentions that a good parent will, for instance, punish. Yet there are different theories on punishment: one calls for creating situations whereby the child's desire to do something pleasing which his parents do not want him to do is countered by an alternative so pleasant that the child will make the desired choice. Although the parents have structured the situation, the child is making the choice.

For professional workers in the field of child guidance and parent education, and for educators as well, Symonds has written a book which culls from the various theories extant a unified and much-needed approach to parent-child relations. The book contains an adequate, annotated bibliography which should provide leads for persons who wish to go further.

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HAROLD S. SLOAN and ARNOLD J. ZURCHER,
A Dictionary of Economics. New York:
Barnes & Noble, Inc., 1949. Pp. viii + 268.
\$3.00.

In preparing *A Dictionary of Economics* Sloan and Zurcher have been guided by a desire to present a reference book that will serve many areas of study. These areas include economic history and theory, international trade, finance and exchange, international commercial policy, public finance, fiscal policy, taxation, money, credit, and banking. In addition, words and phrases used by writers on business cycles, price policy and price mechanism, agricultural and labor economics, industrial organization, and social welfare have been included. By this wide coverage, the authors hope to be of service not only to students and teachers of economics but also to people interested in public affairs and to laymen who are often puzzled by the terminology used by writers in the public

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press and in national magazines and by radio commentators.

The dictionary may be regarded as an authoritative and efficient reference tool. Twenty-four hundred items related to basic economic concepts are presented. These items were selected after it had been determined that they were commonly used in economic discussion. If authorities have differed in the interpretation or significance of a term, that fact has been noted. In every instance American usage has been the guide for determining the meaning of a term used both in formal economics and in business practice. Cross-references are available to the student who desires to make a more extensive and intensive study of a particular term.

Recognizing also that federal statutes, court decisions, and national and international agencies have added to the complexity of economic knowledge, the authors have included brief digests of the more important statutes, decisions, and regulations. In addition, the Preface includes a "Key to Abbreviations" that are commonly used for certain public agencies and other organizations noted in the book. Amid the welter of alphabetical terminology for government agencies and national organizations, users of this book will find the "Key to Abbreviations" a helpful tool for identification purposes.

As an example of the completeness of coverage on a single term, the word "bill," as used in commerce and finance, is explained as "a generic term identifying a variety of documents having to do with currency, the shipment of goods, and the collection of

debts. The term is used as an abbreviation of Bill of Exchange or as synonymous with Draft, often in association with any one of a number of qualifying or descriptive adjectives" (pp. 23-24). Following this basic definition, explanations and illustrations are given of acceptance bill, advance bill, bankable bill, banker's bill, bank bill, clean bill, continental bill, credit bill, demand bill, and ten other adjectives used with the word "bill" that refer to various business uses of the word. Following this lengthy analysis of the definition of bill are brief explanations of "bill of credit," "bill of exchange," "bill of lading," "bill of sale," "bills payable," and "bills receivable." Obviously, in a 268-page dictionary containing 2,400 terms, not every term receives such extensive coverage. However, the selection of basic terms that are defined will impress the reader, as will the coverage of important Supreme Court decisions.

In addition to being useful to laymen and to college and university students in economics and political science, the dictionary will prove helpful as a reference tool to secondary-school teachers and students in courses in economics, American problems, American government, and business education. The fact that some of the terms may become obsolete in one year or ten years does not detract from its continuing contribution to economic understanding.

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CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

Arithmetic 1949. Papers Presented at the Fourth Annual Conference on Arithmetic Held at the University of Chicago, July 6, 7, and 8, 1949. Compiled and edited by G. T. BUSWELL and MAURICE L. HAR-

TUNG. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 70. Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press, 1949. Pp. vi+100. \$2.25.

BERELSON, BERNARD, with the assistance of LESTER ASHEIM. *The Library's Public. A Report of the Public Library Inquiry.*

New York 27: Columbia University Press, 1949. Pp. xx+174. \$3.00.

Classroom Techniques in Improving Reading. Proceedings of the Conference on Reading Held at the University of Chicago. Compiled and edited by WILLIAM S. GRAY. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 69. Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press, 1949. Pp. viii+248. \$2.75.

HOPPOCK, ROBERT. *Group Guidance: Principles, Techniques, and Evaluation.* New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1949. Pp. xiv+394. \$3.75.

LANE, HOMER. *Talks to Parents and Teachers: Insight into the Problems of Childhood.* New York 21: Hermitage Press, Inc., 1949. Pp. 218. \$2.75.

POWELL, JOHN WALKER. *Education for Maturity: An Empirical Essay on Adult Group Study.* New York 21: Hermitage House, Inc., 1949. Pp. x+242. \$3.00.

SCOTTISH COUNCIL FOR RESEARCH IN EDUCATION. *The Trend of Scottish Intelligence: A Comparison of the 1947 and 1932 Surveys of the Intelligence of Eleven-Year-Old Pupils.* Sponsored by the Population Investigation Committee and the Scottish Council for Research in Education. London, E.C. 4: University of London Press, Ltd., 1949. Pp. xxviii+150.

WILLIAMS, JESSE FEIRING, M.D., and ABERNATHY, RUTH. *Health Education in Schools.* New York 16: Ronald Press Co., 1949. Pp. x+316.

WOLLNER, MARY HAYDEN BOWEN. *Children's Voluntary Reading as an Expression of Individuality.* Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 944. New York 27: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949. Pp. viii+118. \$2.35.

**BOOKS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS
AND PUPILS**

AHRENS, MAURICE R.; BUSH, NORRIS F.; and EASLEY, RAY K. *Living Chemistry.* Boston 17: Ginn & Co., 1949 (revised). Pp. iv+552+xxii. \$3.60.

An Anthology of Greek Drama. Edited with an Introduction by CHARLES ALEXANDER ROBINSON, JR. New York 16: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1949. Pp. xx+270. \$0.65.

DAGROSA, JOHN. *Functional Football.* New York 3: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1949 (revised). Pp. xx+340. \$4.00.

FOLEY, MARY C.; CONNELL, KATHERINE; and GARNETT, W. LESLIE, with the collaboration of MILDRED A. DAWSON. *Language for Daily Use, Grade 7.* Yonkers-on-Hudson 5, New York: World Book Co., 1949. Pp. x+406. \$1.84.

MCKEE, PAUL, and BLOSSOM, JOHN. *Key for Correction of Exercises in Practice for Mastering Language.* Boston 8: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1949. Pp. 44. \$0.60.

PAHLLOW, EDWIN W. *Man's Great Adventure: An Introduction to World History.* Boston 17: Ginn & Co., 1949 (revised). Pp. x+816+xlvi. \$3.76.

Parliamentary Procedure. How To Conduct a Meeting: A Pictorial Presentation of "Robert's Rules of Order." Prepared by Creative Graphics, University of Denver, in Cooperation with the School of Speech. Denver 10: University of Denver Press, 1949. Pp. 8. \$0.50.

SHUTE, WILLIAM G.; SHIRK, WILLIAM W.; and PORTER, GEORGE F. *Plane Geometry.* New York 16: American Book Co., 1949. Pp. viii+406.

THOMPSON, HENRIETTA MARY, and REA, LUCILLE E. *Clothing for Children.* New York 16: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1949. Pp. xiv+412. \$6.00.

PUBLICATIONS IN PAMPHLET FORM

Choosing the Superintendent of Schools. Washington 6: American Association of School Administrators, 1949. Pp. 12. \$0.25.

ECKERT, RALPH G., and SMITTER, FAITH W. *Home and School Work Together for Young Children.* Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, Vol. XVIII, No. 1. Sacramento, California: California State Department of Education, 1949. Pp. vi+56.

Educating for Citizenship. Bulletin 242. Harrisburg, Pennsylvania: State Department of Public Instruction, 1949. Pp. xx+344.

Education for One World: Census of the Foreign Student Population of the United States 1948-1949. New York 19: Institute of International Education, 1949. Pp. 48.

Education for the Preservation of Democracy. A Report of the Thirteenth Educational Conference, New York City, October 28 and 29, 1948, under the Auspices of the Educational Records Bureau and the American Council on Education. American Council on Education Studies, Vol. XIII, Series I, Reports of Committees and Conferences, No. 35. Washington 6: American Council on Education, 1949. Pp. vi+112. \$1.50.

Elementary Education: The Elementary Course of Study—An Interim Report. Bulletin 233-B. Harrisburg, Pennsylvania: State Department of Public Instruction, 1949. Pp. x+588.

ELIAS, L. J. *High School Youth Look at Their Problems.* The Tabulated Results of a State-wide Survey of the Opinions of 5,500 High School Youth Concerning Their Schools, Their Families, Their Friends, and Their Futures. Pullman, Washington: College Bookstore, State College of Washington, 1949. Pp. 42. \$0.75.

“Employment Outlook for Psychologists.” Occupational Outlook Summary, March 30, 1949. Washington 25: Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor. Pp. 5 (mimeographed).

FILM COUNCIL OF AMERICA. *How To Conduct a Survey of Community Film Needs and Resources* by REX M. JOHNSON and GLEN BURCH, pp. 20, \$0.15; *How To Organize a Film Festival* by VIRGINIA BEARD and R. H. NISSLER, pp. 16, \$0.15; *How To Evaluate Films for Community Use and Conduct Community Film Workshops* by LOUIS GOODMAN, pp. 16, \$0.15. Chicago 10: Film Council of America, 1949.

FULCHER, GORDON S. “Proposed Federal Aid to Elementary and Secondary Education: Some Facts and Suggestions.” Washington 16: Gordon S. Fulcher (4712 Alton Place, N.W.), 1949. Pp. 16.

“Fun for All and All for Fun: Books for ‘Comics’ Fans.” Prepared by the Children’s Books Committee. Madison, Wisconsin: Madison Public Schools, 1948-49. Pp. 6.

GOODMAN, JOHN O. *Nursery-Kindergarten Education.* Bureau of Educational Research and Service Bulletin, Vol. VII, No. 2. Laramie, Wyoming: College of Education, University of Wyoming, 1949. Pp. 34. \$0.50.

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